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Art. I.—COTTON TRADE OF THE WORLD—1853.*

In presenting to the reader the statistics of the cotton trade for the past year, we are compelled, by unavoidable circumstances, to omit any remarks or suggestions they might present. The figures, however, will not be dry or uninteresting, so numerous and varied are the interests connected with this branch of our agriculture and commerce.

CONSUMPTION.

In England, the demand for 1853 has been less than for the preceding year, but only a little less. In the first half of the year, the amount worked up by the mills was really larger than in 1852; but the Turkish troubles and the high price of corn have reduced the consumption very considerably. The Liverpool deliveries to the trade, which constitute more than 95 per cent. of the whole purchases of the manufacturers, have been for the two years as follows:—

	Liverpool Delivery.		Weekly Consumption.	
	1853. Bales.*	1852. Bales.	1853. Bales.	1852. Bales.
May 6.....	683,000	630,000	38,000	35,000
June 3.....	833,270	870,140	37,900	39,500
July 1.....	939,550	1,000,610	38,100	38,400
August 5.....	1,202,650	1,194,400	38,800	38,500
September 2.....	1,306,420	1,340,000	37,300	38,400
October 7.....	1,429,740	1,520,040	35,700	38,000
November 4.....	1,645,250	1,701,470	35,100	38,700
“ 11.....	1,578,150	1,718,700	35,100	38,200
“ 18.....	1,609,500	1,731,100	35,000	37,600

For the whole year, the consumption of Great Britain for

* By Professor McCay, in *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*.

1852 was 1,861,200 bales, against 1,663,400 for 1851, and 1,514,500 for 1852, and 1,474,420 for the average of the five preceding years. The falling off for 1854 is not so great as would appear by the reported deliveries, since the stocks in the hands of the manufacturers were estimated to be 50,000 bales more than usual on the first of January last, and at the present time they are supposed to be uncommonly low.

The demand for the coming year must decline. The high price of food must seriously interfere with the domestic consumption of Great Britain. When the cost of the English quarter of wheat is now (according to the average of the 12th of November) 73s. 7d. against 40s. for 1852, the portion of their wages which the laborer and artisan can spare for clothing is much diminished. The scarcity of money, as indicated by an advance in the rate of interest from 2 to 5 per cent., must also discourage the wants of the home trade. The favorable circumstances, such as the high price of iron, the general advance in wages, the abundance of work for the laborer, the diminution in the number of paupers, will be alike operative for both years. The export trade will be seriously embarrassed by the war between Turkey and Russia. The calicoes sent to Turkey and the Levant, including the plain, printed, and dyed, approach 100,000,000 yards per annum, which is 10 or 12 per cent. of the whole export. The cotton yarn is 7 or 8 per cent. The calicoes bought by Russia are few, but the yarn is nearly as much as that sent to Turkey. The demand from both these countries must be very much decreased by the war. From Austria and the other German States, a decline must be expected from the same cause. The revolution in China will seriously interrupt the exports to that country. The cotton cloths sold by Great Britain alone to this populous empire are larger than what is taken by Russia and Turkey together. The possession of Nankin, and the control of the great canal by the rebels; the occupation of Amoy and Shanghai, two of the five open ports, by lawless usurpers and robbers, in whom the merchants place no confidence; the famine at Peking, and the alarm and distrust at Canton, will largely curtail the English exports to the Celestial Empire. From Australia and India, the United States and Canada, no falling off may be anticipated; but if we notice the very large business done with these important countries for the year 1853, no increase can be expected for 1854. The failure of the harvests in Lombardy, France, and Germany, and the high price of food in all parts of the Continent of Europe, will lessen the demand for English cottons. Everywhere, both at home and abroad, the prospects of the English manufacturers are discouraging.

Under these circumstances, it may be expected that the increase in the consumption of 1852 and 1853 over previous years

will be entirely lost, and that the wants of Great Britain for 1854 will not much exceed the average of 1849, 1850, and 1851, which was 1,589,400 bales. It may reach 1,700,000, but its probable limit is 1,600,000 bales.

In France, the consumption for 1853 is nearly as large as for 1852, and both are decidedly above those of previous years. The deliveries at Havre up to the 16th of November were 349,045 bales, against 367,587 for 1852, and 275,764 for 1851. Our exports to France for 1852 and 1853 have been 421,375 and 426,728 bales; but the stocks on the 16th of November were 36,716 bales in excess of last year, and 37,200 bales over 1851. This would indicate a probable consumption of American cotton for the present year of 390,000 bales; but on account of the unfavorable circumstances at the close of the year, this amount will scarcely be attained. The very great deficiency of the French harvest will lessen the demand for 1854; but, as past experience shows that the consumption in the French factories is much more regular than in England, the wants for the coming year of American cotton will not probably fall below 350,000 bales.

The demand for United States cotton on the Continent of Europe has not declined for the year 1853. Our exports to those countries are larger than ever before, and the same is true of the English exports. Ours have been 364,812 bales, against 353,522 for 1852, and 269,000 for 1851. The exports from Liverpool, up to November 18th, were 237,540 bales, those of 1852 having been 219,430. The sum of these two for the whole year 1852 was 636,322 bales, and for 1853 they will be larger. The consumption in the German States, and even in Russia, will suffer but little decline, as the demand has for many years been advancing with great steadiness and regularity. For 1854, these countries will probably require not less than 600,000 bales.

For the last year the consumption of the United States has advanced from 603,029 bales to 671,009. The general prosperity of the New-England manufacturers, and of the country at large, warrants the anticipation of an increase in this demand. The stringency in the money market, and the decline in the probable demand for exportation to China, will be more than made up by the increased population of our country, the prosperity of the farmers on account of the high price of bread-stuffs, and the abundant crops which have generally rewarded the labors of the husbandman. For the coming year the wants of our manufacturers will probably reach 700,000 bales.

The following table comprises the consumption of 1851 and 1852, the probable result for 1853, and the estimate for 1854:—

	Result for		Estimate for	
	1851. Bales.	1852. Bales.	1853. Bales.	1854. Bales.
Wants of Great Britain.....	1,663,000	1,861,000	1,700,000	1,600,000
“ of France	310,000	410,000	375,000	350,000
“ of United States.....	404,000	603,000	671,000	700,000
“ of other countries.....	538,000	636,000	650,000	600,000
Total	2,915,000	3,510,000	3,396,000	3,250,000

SUPPLY.

In the United States, a falling off in the receipts will be everywhere experienced; but the deficiency will not be large. The promise in the early part of the year was good, in every part of the country. Up to July the season had been dry; but the drought, though disastrous to the corn, did but little damage to the cotton. On the uplands the weed was stunted; but on the good lands, especially on the river bottoms and in swampy localities, the fields could not look better. The abundant rains that set in during July and August stimulated the plant on the uplands, and appeared to help it; but the new fruit thus produced was generally cut off by the frost on the 25th of October. On the low grounds where the weed was thriving, on the appearance of the rains the squares dropped very extensively, and the late fruit in some places was ruined by the frost. In very many places, however, the plant was not killed, and the fine weather that followed the frost brought out the crop most wonderfully. It was feared that the excessive wetness of the season would encourage the production of the caterpillar and the boll-worm; and on many plantations, indeed, they made sad havoc; but they did not appear so extensively as was feared, and their ravages were not general.

From South Carolina and Georgia, a considerable decline might be expected. The first crop of bolls was small, on account of the drought; the second was lessened by the rains; and the third was generally cut off by the frost. But many places have escaped one or the other of these calamities; and the deficiency of the receipts at Charleston and Savannah will be made up in part by increased shipments from Columbus and the Tennessee River. Instead of 813,000 bales for past year, 750,000 may be expected for 1854. From Florida the falling off will be small. The crops on the Flint and Chatahoochee rivers are much better than they were last year, and were it not for the Muscogee Railroad, there would be an increase rather than a decline. The worm and caterpillar have done some damage. But the planting has been larger; they have had no disastrous storm; and the October frost did not everywhere stop the growth of the plant. The estimate for 1854 may be put at 160,000 bales. From Ala-

bama the reports are various and contradictory. Up to July, the promise was never better. The wet weather brought the boll-worm on many plantations, and its ravages at some places were very great. The forms fell off very rapidly; many blossoms were killed. The fine prospects of the summer were by this time injured. The frost then came, and destroyed all hope of the late crop of bolls; but in many districts the growth of the cotton was not interrupted by this frost, and during the whole month of November the fine weather for opening and gathering the late crop favored the planters very much.

For Mobile, the receipts may be anticipated to be about the same as for the last two years. Similar remarks apply, for the most part, to New-Orleans. The worm was more disastrous in Mississippi and Louisiana than it was in Alabama; and the malignancy of the yellow fever interrupted at many places proper attention to the crop. A slight decline may be anticipated, therefore, for New-Orleans. From Texas, on account of the increased number of planters and the favorable seasons, a small increase over last year may be looked for. From the whole country, the receipts may be put at 3,000,000 bales, as in the table below. The great falling off in the receipts for the first part of the season, would appear at first sight to warrant the prediction that the whole crop would be very small. But last year the rivers were very favorable to early shipments from the plantations to the seaboard; and the extraordinary continuance of the yellow fever at the Gulf ports, and its unusual malignity, have, for the present season, discouraged the planters and steamboat owners from forwarding to an early market the cotton that was otherwise ready for shipment.

	Crop of 1851.	Crop of 1852.	Estimate for	
	Bales.	Bales.	1853. Bales.	1854. Bales.
Texas	46,000	64,000	86,000	90,000
New-Orleans	933,000	1,373,000	1,581,000	1,400,000
Mobile	452,000	549,000	545,000	540,000
Florida	181,000	189,000	179,000	160,000
Georgia	322,000	326,000	350,000	325,000
South Carolina	387,000	477,000	463,000	425,000
Other places	34,000	37,000	59,000	60,000
Total	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,263,000	3,000,000

The supply from the East Indies will be large. The troubles in China, whither a large portion of their exports is directed, have diverted an unusual amount of cotton from Canton, to Liverpool and London. The imports into Liverpool alone, from Surat, Madras, and Bengal, were, on the 18th of November, 277,544 bales, against 124,306 for the year 1852. The whole English receipts were 221,500 bales for 1852, and 328,800 for 1851. Of these amounts, the Liverpool receipts were 156,673

and 232,100. If the same proportion yet prevails between the Liverpool and the London imports, the receipts for Great Britain of East India cotton for 1853, will exceed 400,000 bales. For the year 1854, the revolution in China will produce a more decided effect on this diversion of the trade than it has hitherto done. The English prices, which always influence very largely the amount of Indian imports, do not promise so favorably as last year. Balancing these two causes, the estimate for 1854 may be put at 400,000 bales.

From Egypt, Brazil, and the West Indies, the supply has been on the increase for the last four or five years. For the two years, 1847 and 1848, it averaged 136,450 bales. For 1849 and 1850, it was 251,350. For 1851 and 1852, it was 263,850. For 1853, the receipts at Liverpool up to the 18th of November were 219,451 bales, against 244,939 for the preceding year. As the whole English receipts for 1852 were 346,700 bales, the smallness of the decline at Liverpool authorizes the expectation that at the end of 1853 they will reach 300,000 bales.

Will this be lessened for the incoming year? No serious falling off can be expected in the South American and West India exports. These constituted for 1851 and 1852 more than half of the receipts, and for 1853 they were two-thirds. In the Egyptian, a decline may be expected on account of the Turkish troubles. But as the planting of the crop took place before these difficulties became serious, the deficiency of the present year will be but slight. Not less than 250,000 bales may confidently be anticipated for 1854.

The supply, then, from all these sources, will probably reach 3,650,000 bales, against nearly 4,000,000 for 1853, as appears from the following table:—

	Result for		Estimate for	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
United States.....	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,263,000	3,000,000
East Indies.....	329,000	221,000	400,000	400,000
Other places.....	181,000	347,000	300,000	250,000
Total	2,865,000	3,583,000	3,963,000	3,650,000

PRICES.

As this estimate is 400,000 bales above the probable demand at present prices, according to the estimate given above, it would seem impossible to sustain the rates at which cotton is now selling. The stocks are already large, on account of the immense production of last year. On the first of September the amount of old cotton in our ports was 135,648 bales, against 91,176 for the year 1852. On the first Friday of October it was in Liverpool 770,770 bales, against 506,670 in 1852. At Havre it

had increased, by October 14th, to 53,586 bales over the preceding year. The accumulation at these places having advanced more than 350,000 bales during 1853, furnishes a proof that the large crop of the past year has not been consumed. The great deficiency in our receipts at the seaboard, for the early part of the present season, and of our exports to foreign countries, does not permit the enhanced amount of stocks to be now so apparent as it otherwise would be.

Since, then, the stocks increased largely in 1853, and promise to continue to advance still more for the present year, it would seem impossible that the market price for cotton should continue above the average rates. For the last fourteen years, from 1840 to 1853, the average price has been 8 cents and 7 mills. The exports to foreign ports for the first ten of these years, amounted in all to 7,128 millions of pounds; for the last four they have been 3,570 millions. The value of the first ten was 552 millions of dollars; of the last four, 381 millions. For the whole period, 10,698 millions of pounds were exported for 933 millions of dollars, giving the average price just mentioned. The present price at Charleston, (December 9th, 1853,) for middling, is 9 $\frac{1}{2}$, and for good middling 10 cents. These rates being decidedly above the average, cannot well be maintained in the face of the large supply and the diminished demand, while food remains dear and money scarce, while actual war is raging between Russia and Turkey, and imminent danger of general hostilities impends over the principal States of Europe. The large demand in the United States, both for the raw material and for English cotton goods, the immense trade opened in Australia, and the general prosperity in the English colonies and in Mexico and South America, will prevent a serious decline. But that prices must fall below the average of past years appears to be plainly foreshadowed by the history of the past and the circumstances under which the new year opens.

Art. II.—MINNESOTA AND ITS RESOURCES.

A WORK has recently issued from the press, by J. Wesley Bond, which treats of Minnesota and its Resources. We are thus enabled to add another to our series of papers upon the States and Territories of the Union.

The author has, doubtless, given us a faithful portrait of what he has seen in that remote Territory, and speaks of things in a style and manner that induce us to believe them to be just what they are represented. The subject, applied to a region until recently unknown even to the pioneer, being new to most read

ers, and important at this conjuncture of our political history and territorial progress, has demanded of him a careful survey of the ground his sketches travel over; and he has furnished us with a practical result of his observations, rather than a rehash of merely speculative opinions, founded on hearsay testimony, often incongruous in detail, and mostly unreliable for the border romance and hunter fiction which, it is stubbornly insisted, forms a legitimate feature in descriptions of a new country and a new people. In so far as observation has carried him, he has prudently sought to present naked facts, without any relieving touches of fancy, or his narrative being adorned with whimsical rhapsodies and rhetorical verbiage. He is furnishing the reader with a common-sense sketch of a still wild and partially unsettled territory, about being reclaimed from solitude, and given over to civilization as a nursery of the arts and industry. But however dull and prosy such a theme is, viewed in this light, it has its attractive features. An ardent and juvenile temperament would find in it ample material for an epic—of savage Achilles, and black-eyed Helens; but Mr. Bond treats the subject as would a farmer or a speculator—he discovers localities which are likely best to repay the husbandman for his toil, or the capitalist a per centum on moneys advanced for locating a city. Such a writer it is pleasant to follow, especially in this utilitarian age, when all the world is agog for wealth, and the means whereby it is cheaply to be acquired.

The student of history has had his memory refreshed again and again with rehearsals of Central American civilization in some supposed age anterior to the discovery of the Continent by the Spaniards. Many volumes have been written to prove that the mounds and lettered monuments of Colombia and Peru, discovered from time to time, and bearing unmistakable traces of great antiquity, all relate to an era in primitive American history, when the arts and sciences have flourished there, and that the present ignorance and degradation of the Central American people only recall the desolation of Tadmor in the wilderness, whose ashes and repose the Arab disturbs with indignity. But few have perused Venegas, the Jesuit and Missionary, whose footprints Carson, Fremont, and others, have trailed away up towards the sources of the Colorado; and who knows but that he may have crossed into the Utah basin, and beheld, as it were, "standing on the Mount," Minnesota, not as it is, but at this early period peopled by a nation of whom but the relics, in the Indians of that territory, now remain? The more that is brought to light by the researches of the archæologist, and the enterprise of the trader, the trapper, and the pioneer, relating to the primitive settlement of America, the more does inclination prompt to re-write the history of discov-

ery, and modify the chronology of events. Venegas, three hundred years ago, had much to describe of the people inhabiting California, and along the margin of the Colorado. His chapters devoted to the natural history of the country could not with propriety be adopted by any writer on the natural history of that country now; for his birds and his beasts, his herds and his flocks, like his cities and their inhabitants, have all disappeared, been swept from the earth, leaving no token of their former existence. When, therefore, we glibly talk of the onward tide of emigration, the settlement of a new territory, and the founding of a city in a wilderness, we in the next breath ought to inquire whether a red-skinned Marius may not have wept upon that very spot, or another Belshazzar have held a feast there at the moment his kingdom and sceptre were passing from him. But no matter. The inheritance comes to us purified, and we have only to accept and improve it.

Minnesota, or the land of the Dakotas, was known to European missionaries long before many of our other Western or Northwestern territories were. Father Menard endeavored to reach it in 1658, but was lost on his way. Hennepin, undeterred by the fate of Menard, boldly buried himself amid the same wilds, in 1680, and was probably the second of European birth to break the silence by word of the mighty domain. He gave the baptismal name to the falls of St. Anthony, whose roar is now a familiar sound to the voyager and the emigrant. Later, Baron La Hontan, the geographer, journeyed over nearly the same ground; and still later,* Le Sueur, the brave trader of the Sioux, penetrated to the camp of the fierce Dakotas. After Le Sueur came Jonathan Carver,† then Cass, Schoolcraft, Nicollet, Fremont, Long, and others, until at length the country began to be regarded as lying within the compass of social intercourse; and its next progressive step will be to clamor for State admittance into the Union.

The Territory of Minnesota, as organized by the act of Congress of March 3, 1849, "is," says Mr. Bond, "an extensive region, being about four times as large as the State of Ohio, and is 672 miles in extent from its southeastern to its northwestern border. It extends from the Mississippi and St. Croix rivers and the western extremity of Lake Superior on the East, to the Missouri and White Earth rivers on the West, a distance of over 400 miles; and from the Iowa line (latitude 43° 30') on the South, to the British line (latitude 49°) on the North, also a distance of over 400 miles, the whole comprising an area of 166,000 square miles, or 106,000,000 acres." "Almost the entire area," continues Mr. Bond, "is a fine rolling prairie of rich soil, a sandy loam adapted to the short summers of the

* 1700.

† 1776.

climate, and which produce bounteously, nay, luxuriously. The surface of the country, excepting the Missouri plains, is interspersed with numerous beautiful lakes of fresh water, all abounding in the finest fish, and their banks covered with a fine growth of woodland. The land is about equally divided between oak-openings and prairies, the whole well watered by numerous streams navigable for steamers. In the eastern part, viz., on the head-waters of the Mississippi, Rum River, and the St. Croix, are extensive pine and hard wood forests, apparently inexhaustible for centuries."

Any one, to study Minnesota properly, should lay before him a map by which its geographical situation would bring its internal advantages more into view. Nature has so disposed it among its sister territories, that, in its relation with the States, it presents transcendent inducements for a speedy location of the soil, and a monopoly of the rare resources it has at command. It does not spread directly across the route of the California emigrant, or compel the commerce of the two oceans to construct a railroad upon its borders; these are considerations; but they are used in logic, as signs are on turnpike gates, to warn the traveller that there is a toll to pay; being somewhat compulsory, too, for they are bids to conciliation, as footpads are who arrest you on a journey, with one hand extended, the other on a weapon, with nothing in their pockets, and rags on their backs. Minnesota, unless the range of its destiny is at a tangent, has something inherently commendable and attractive to the capitalist and schemer. The Mississippi River, which traverses the Territory through its central part, is navigable for a distance of 400 miles; while on its southern boundary it has the St. Peter's River, as a tributary to the Father of Floods, and a channel of water communication for the whole region through which it flows. Thus, by means of its tributaries, Minnesota River, the Sioux Wood River, the Red River, and their lake connections, the entire Northern region is brought by the Mississippi into navigable proximity with St. Paul's, the future trade metropolis of the Northwest; and thence, with the country bordering the Mississippi, an open and free intercourse is held with the States through which that river passes until it empties into the Gulf of Mexico. Portage is now conducted with little disadvantage, from tributary to tributary, in common wagons; when, as must be the case, enterprise has built railroads so as to enlarge the radius of operation, nothing but devastating calamity can retard the growth of the Territory, in every element of substantial wealth, from that hour. Mr. Bond has, as we have said, carefully surveyed the ground he travelled over. He confirms the opinion just uttered, and adds what follows relating to the lower or southern portion of the Territory:—

"A railroad connection will eventually be made from the mouth of the Bois de Sioux to Fond du Lac; also from the same point to St. Anthony and St. Paul, *via* Sauk Rapids and the Mississippi. Another will connect the same point with Lac qui Parle, on account of the portage at Big-Stone Lake; thence down to the mouth of Blue Earth; thence southeasterly through Iowa to some point, say Prairie du Chien, or Dubuque, on the Lower Mississippi."

Minnesota, besides being a country capable of producing every variety of provisions and breadstuffs, with a large saving of means, owing to the climate, the quality of the soil, and the nature of the surface, is geographically so placed that it must become ultimately the great reservoir of much of the various products of other and contiguous territories, in seeking a market on the seaboard. Hence Mr. Bond follows his remarks, just quoted, with the observation: "Let not the [in] credulous reader smile at this. I have been through a principal portion of the regions here described, and, without enthusiasm, write from a survey of the country and a knowledge of its capacities and resources when once brought out. Let no one think the great tide of immigration will confine itself to the banks of the Minnesota and Mississippi rivers; on the contrary, the whole interior to the North and West of these two streams will soon be peopled, and thickly peopled, too."

One of the common errors advocated by a portion of the press is, that "railroads must follow," but that "they rarely precede emigration." A fallacy so senseless, and yet so popular, is disproved by every revelation of time, and every page of history. Every progressive step made by society, in its industrial organization, has been taken after the means of communication in intercourse and trade have preceded. From the notching of trees as a trail by the pioneer, to the building of a railroad by the advanced and wealthy community, are but different vindications of a common law, one simply being an improvement over the other. That law is expediency; the wisdom of it is shown in the obedience to it; while the impulse to conform to it is but an inherent yet inexplicable conviction of its necessity. It is exemplified in brutes; it is simplified, extended as a principle, and vindicated as a fact in man. Even to the laying out, improving, and the condition in which it is kept, of a street in a city, will travel set into, or retreat from it, and business and wealth follow the tide.

Having spoken of the rivers of Minnesota, we come to examine more carefully the physical aspects of the country, and to discuss its resources. If occasionally we are compelled to confound an apostolic patronymic with the heathen nomenclature of the country, we hope to be pardoned for the sacrilege; but how it has happened that St. John, St. Paul, and St. Peter, are almost invariably twin-tied with Red Jacket, Big Legs, and Crow Heels,

we are utterly at a loss to determine; and Mr. Bond has not attempted to enlighten his readers.

Minnesota is devoid of mountains. It has high hills; but these are covered with verdure, are without rocks or precipices, and may be cultivated to their summits. There are many lakes scattered throughout the Territory—some large, and others small; all tolerably deep, filled with pure, clear water, and teeming with fish of multitudinous variety. Wild rice grows on these lakes, which therefore become the haunt in large flocks of different water-fowl. Swamps are scarce. Such as are found are easily reclaimed. As for the climate, "in our coldest weather," says Mr. Bond, "when the mercury congeals, men perform as much labor out of doors as at any time in the year. The air is then still as death. * * * In summer we have a few days intensely hot, but frequent showers from spring until harvest, and most of them in the short nights. At midsummer the sun seems scarcely to go down in the west * * before we again behold his blazing chariot in the east. At nine o'clock in the evening, it is then scarcely too dark for your wives and daughters to be sewing." The autumn is prolonged, and winter is ushered in gradually and with grateful preparation.

Timber abounds. Oaks, rock maple, and black walnuts, attain great height and bulk; but the pine-tree, for lumber and marine purposes, is specially dwelt upon as a product of the Territory. A large number of saw-mills have been erected along the tributaries of the great streams, which do a flourishing business; but they cannot, it appears, more than supply the local demand, and consequently the drift to the distant markets is limited. "We have also," says Mr. Bond, "more and better inducements for agriculture than any other country can boast." He states his reasons for this unqualified assumption: 1st, superiority of climate; 2d, superiority of land. He proceeds to show, by analyses of the subject, wherein these assumed superiorities exist. The climate (is his conclusion) is not only genial to the growth of grain and vegetables, but it contributes to the physical strength. "Labor," he contends, "stands up firmly on its legs here the year round, and drives things through." The fecundity of the soil he has never seen surpassed, rarely equalled. "The Minnesotans will take anything," says Mr. B.; "don't care what the crop is—any grain—any root—anything, from a castor bean, or an apple or pear, or a pumpkin, to a sweet potato or a tobacco plant," and they will put the Territory against the world. Frost comes late, and ceases early. Besides, it gives seasonable warning of its approach, and plays few tricks with the husbandman, such as taking him at unguarded times, and in unexpected moments.

Notwithstanding the opinions of geologists, it appears that

coal has been found in one or two spots, and fresh discoveries of this mineral are anticipated. No mention is made by Mr. Bond of iron ore, but the inference is strong that the Territory is not devoid of iron formations. There is hardly a State or Territory west of Ohio that does not contain such formations, and which are worked; and recently an extensive vein has been discovered near Lake Superior, of the existence of which geologists had been in complete ignorance until accident brought it to light.

The farmer about to migrate to Minnesota, is told to settle anywhere. There is, according to Mr. Bond, a preference given to no part of the Territory over another. The inducement is general, and the temptation is repaid by finding fertile lands, available water-courses, well-studded forests, and a blooming paradise everywhere. Localities, however, are pointed out to the mechanic and the artisan, not because one section has advantages which another might not possess, but because, each being scarce, the demand in the more populous regions is greater. "A hundred mills," says Mr. B., both saw and grist, "would pay well now, if they could be at once located at St. Paul, St. Anthony, and at the Sauk Rapids; also at Lake Pepin, Lake Minnetonka, and more especially on the Minnesota River." Masons, carpenters, joiners, blacksmiths, burr-stone dressers, and, indeed, every branch of the mechanic arts, are solicited to come to the Territory, and impress the features of their trades upon it; for, notwithstanding the inhabitants manage to have their cattle shod, their houses built, and their agricultural implements sharpened, the ground yet to be occupied by mechanic enterprise is coextensive with the country. "Mechanics and laborers," adds Mr. B., "will find work everywhere in town and country. There is a demand for both, and high wages [are] ready. Mechanics get all kinds of prices, according to the trade and skill of the man. Two dollars per day is the medium price. Common laborers get from one dollar to one dollar and a quarter per day." The demand for the latter is enhanced by the fact that numerous government roads are in process of construction, and hands are required to hasten the work. Steamboating on the rivers of Minnesota, according to M. Bond, must be one of the grandest and most picturesque enjoyments imaginable. Snow falls usually in November, and lies on the ground until March, when it goes off in gradual thaws, increasing the volume of water in the streams, thus proving doubly of benefit to the timber raftsman and husbandman. The winters are remarkably dry, the springs wet and boisterous, the summers cool and pleasant, with a southwestern breeze almost constantly prevailing, and the autumns, like the autumns of the Orient, full of song, of life, and genial sunshine. As a wheat-producing

country, Minnesota may well compare with any other in the world.

St. Paul, the capital of the Territory, is in latitude $44^{\circ} 52' 46''$ North, and longitude $93^{\circ} 4' 54''$ West. It has been made a port of entry, and from a hunter's ranch has become a populous and flourishing inland city. It is pleasantly situated on the east bank of the Mississippi River, near its confluence with the Minnesota River, and is 800 feet above the level of the Gulf of Mexico. It contains 5,000 inhabitants, and increases beyond all calculation or estimate. "Commercially," says Mr. Bond, "it is the key to all the vast region north of it, and, by the Minnesota River, to the immense valley drained through that important tributary to the Father of Waters. The approach to it by the river from below is grand and imposing. The traveller, after leaving Dubuque more than three hundred miles below, sees nothing to remind him of a city, or even a prosperous business town, until he rounds the bend in the river below St. Paul, and her tall spires, substantial business houses, and neat dwellings, burst upon his view."

Five years ago there was not the sign of a white village in the whole Territory. Now St. Paul aspires to the rank of a city, with 5,000 inhabitants.

The region about the city is described to be most delightful. The landscape is beautiful and attractive for its alternating character; lakes and rivulets are met with at short intervals, abounding with all manner of fish, and among the rest the White Mountain trout species, with any quantity of our ordinary fresh-stream swarms. "A stranger," says Mr. Bond, "is generally astonished, and not unfrequently very much amused, at the scene presented for contemplation on his first arrival at the St. Paul landing. In short, his first impressions, with regard to the state of society here, are altogether unfavorable. He is welcomed by an unusual and motley group of human beings, gathered from all parts of the Union, the Canadas, the Indian lands, and Perubina, besides the curiously mixed-up race of natives." This picture may serve briefly to convey an idea of the physical character of the city population, but in point of morals, temperance, and intellectual culture, St. Paul is an exception to the rule of heterogeneous border life, for it seems that the people have contrived to build more churches than there are really persons to fill them. A people thus zealously disposed to show their respect and high obligation to duty, are not apt to omit what is equally incumbent upon them, the education essential to appreciate sacred objects of devotion.

The commerce of a city like St. Paul, opening its gates on all sides to a wilderness, must partake of the simple features of primitive barter among the early inhabitants of the Atlantic

board. We can imagine the character of the commodities that find their way into and from this modern Persepolis. Furs, peltries, ginseng, roots, and skins, brought by the Dakotas, and their red brethren; these carry away with them tobacco, spirits, blankets, ammunition, and toys: pine, oak, hemlock, and hoop-poles, brought by the sunburnt woodsman; he carries away with him coffee, tea, muslin, rice, sugar, calico, and numerous household and culinary wares: wheat, rye, oats, potatoes, and seeds, brought by the farmer; he carries away with him bar-iron, a few luxuries, and perhaps an order from the merchant to the nearest blacksmith for a set of harrow-teeth. In fine, money is not mentioned, nor is it needed. The territory supplies the necessities of the people, and St. Paul dispenses them.

We cannot resist giving Mr. Bond's views of the *probable* future consequence of St. Paul as a foreign entrepôt for an overland Pacific route. He says: "The route from Halifax to Tuca Straits, opposite to Vancouver's Island, has been ascertained to be quite as feasible as the route proposed from Lake Michigan to Puget's Sound, and a very large part of the country is the finest wheat country in the world. The distance would vary but little from that of our route, while from London to China it would be considerably less than ours. By measuring a globe, it will be seen that Lake Huron is less distant from London than New-York is from London; and as Lake Superior is but six hundred and fifty feet elevated above the Atlantic, a railroad from Halifax to Lake Superior might be constructed on almost a dead level. This would enable England to transport all the produce of the Mississippi basin to Halifax at a much less cost than to any [American] Atlantic city. Besides, Halifax is much nearer to Europe, and would avoid the storms and dangers of navigation between Halifax and New-York." Hence, Mr. Bond argues, it should be the policy of American capitalists (if the General Government will not take the matter in charge) to run a railroad to the Pacific, pretty near to St. Paul on the South, otherwise, should the British government open a railroad from Halifax to British Oregon, "interest," says Mr. Bond, "would immediately require the construction of a railroad from St. Paul to intersect it." Thus, he continues, "The whole of the intercourse of the Southern and Western States, with Oregon, nay, with California, would take this route," and the United States be deprived of the overland carrying trade of Europe with the East Indies. At best this is but a speculation, the only one Mr. Bond indulges in that is not stamped with unquestionable sagacity. The British government has seriously thought of the Halifax survey; but whether it has any idea of promptly locating it with iron rails, remains to be seen. The suggestion, however, is not bad; and it has the additional

merit of inviting reflection on the subject. St. Paul is, without doubt, eligibly situated; but what gives to it importance over every merely hypothetical assurance of what the future may ungarnish, is, that it has its foundation laid on the banks of the Mississippi, whose lordly current has present capacity for all the transit trade that the West and the Northwest may empty upon its bosom. Mr. Bond assures the reader that the subjoined is a pretty accurate exhibit of the amount of money invested in mercantile operations in St. Paul:—

Dry goods.....	\$100,000	Groceries.....	\$83,000
Assorted merchandise.....	100,000	Clothing, and hat and cap stores.	30,000
Boots and shoes.....	10,000	Hardware.....	5,000
Farming implements.....	8,000	Books and stationery.....	12,000
Drugs, oils, paints, glass, &c..	12,000	Iron and nails.....	20,000
Miscellaneous.....	10,000		
Add capital invested in Indian trade, government contracts, &c.....		400,000	
Total.....		\$790,000	

A large proportion of the mercantile trade of St. Paul is wholesale. The following are investments in the manufacturing business of the city:—

3 Steam saw-mills, machinery, and stock.....	\$100,000
1 Flouring mill.....	12,000
1 Sash and planing shop.....	10,000
1 Iron foundry, and machine shop attached.....	3,000
3 Stove and tinware establishments.....	8,000
1 Plough and farming implement factory.....	3,000
4 Carriage and wagon factories.....	8,000
Several blacksmith shops.....	5,000
2 Cabinet-ware and furniture shops.....	9,000
Boot and shoe establishments.....	5,000
Saddle and harness.....	5,000
Bakers' and confectioners' ..	4,000
Miscellaneous.....	5,000
Total.....	\$177,000

These are the tangible evidences of a people's prosperity. Where the plough, the loom, the anvil, and the merchant and grocer are congregated, and their products and merchandise find a market, happiness will build itself up as an institution among them, and opulence crown their ambition.

St. Paul contains about 600 buildings, used as dwellings and factories, &c., which Mr. Bond classifies as follows:—

Dwellings, offices, and shops.....	517
Manufactories and business houses.....	70
Churches, 6; hotels, 4.....	10
School-houses, public and private.....	4
Court-house and jail.....	2
Capitol.....	1
	604

Probably 80 or 100 are in process of erection, and ready for roofing, which are not included in this count. The foundations are dug and the timbers framed of others; and thus in a few years we shall lose sight of the Dakota's wigwams, in the clustering dwellings of the white man, and palatial edifices of the money-changer.

We have just said, that in a community such as we might suppose inhabits St. Paul, education would not be neglected; and in turning over another page of Mr. Bond's work, we find that our convictions are confirmed. Not only has the Legislature of the Territory made ample provision for primary schools, but it has incorporated a University at St. Anthony's Falls, where the higher branches are taught, and the mind expands with the inspiration of Horace and Virgil. The poor Indian who beholds these innovations, and avoids the axe that despoils his hunting-grounds, is not rudely thrust forth, condemned to wander among the graves of his buried ancestry uncared for. He is invited to join in with the paler-faced children of the Territory, not to participate in ruthless carnivals, but to partake of the feasts of wisdom these schools afford, so that it may no longer be held a reproach to the Dakota—

"Lo! the poor Indian, whose untutor'd mind
Sees God in clouds and hears him in the wind;
His soul proud science never taught to stray
Far as the Solar Walk or Milky Way."

With the subjoined quotations from Mr. Bond's work, we shall conclude this imperfect sketch of "Minnesota and its Resources." Here is a statement of crops obtained by a tribe of Winnebagoes on Long Prairie last year. As a general thing, the Indian races will not labor; but this beginning is fruitful of expectation for the future:—

	Planted acres.	Raised bushels.
Corn.....	300	12,000
Potatoes.....	50	10,000
Wheat.....	10	300
Turnips.....	50	10,000
Oats.....	40	4,000
Garden Vegetables.....	10	

Raised on the Mississippi Flats:—

Corn.....	100	2,000
Potatoes.....	10	1,000
Turnips.....	30	8,000

St. Paul, as the capital of the Territory, has demanded special mention; but it is not the only town that has engrafted with the soil of Minnesota. Settlements, that assume the form of hamlets and villages, are sparsely scattered here and there, all hopeful, ambitious, and promising. If Minnesota is the Arcadia

it is represented to be, Mr. Bond may with propriety conclude his volume with a vision, in which, not with shut, but open eyes, he sees Amalthea emptying her cornucopia into the streets of St. Paul.

St. Paul, according to the United States Census, has one academy, which, in 1850, contained 12 students. The State at large, according to the same authority, has one State library, containing 3,000 volumes; and one social library, containing 200 volumes. The territorial population in the same year was 6,077; number of dwellings, 1,002; number of families, 1,016. Of the aggregate population, 2,336 were returned as belonging to the trades and professions, namely, carpenters and joiners, 188; lumbermen, 126; farmers, 340; hunters, 207; laborers, 599, &c., &c. The number returned as merchants was 87. The other trades and professions range from one to sixteen, and as high as thirty.

Art. III.—NATURAL HISTORY IN ITS RELATIONS TO GEORGIA.

NATURAL HISTORY makes us acquainted with objects that constitute this sphere on which we dwell, and with the animals and vegetables that live on its surface. These objects, so far as applicable, are considered in relation to their structure, internal and external, their conditions of existence, their mode of formation, their changes, their habits and properties; their resemblances, so as to form groups, classes, families, orders and genera, their differences which separate them, and their uses.

To develop the Natural History of Georgia, then, is, 1st. To learn the nature of all the materials that compose her soil; the rocks, that form her hills and mountains; the waters, that burst from her hill-sides, or flow from her swamps; the vegetation, that grows on her surface, from the minutest conferva that floats in her stagnant pools, to the majestic forest-tree that adorns her mountain summits, or spreads in luxuriance in her fertile bottoms; the minutest insect, that lives but an hour, to the largest animal that roams her forests, and the eagle that dwells amid her mountain peaks. And,

2d. To develop, and apply, by well-directed intelligence, any or all of these various objects, that they may administer to the uses, necessities, and luxuries of man.

These are the ends that the development of the Natural History of Georgia must aim to accomplish. To do it, must require time, measured by many years. It must require the expenditure of physical and mental power, and money. It must require the co-operation of the great mass of her citizens. And

when all these conditions are fulfilled, and the open fields now before us are explored, new relations, new interests, new objects, shall rise up to demand unlimited effort.

To develop nature, is to unfold an endless series. We cannot examine one object she presents, apparently the most circumscribed in its relations and characters, without finding those relations and characters, but the figures on an external covering, that obscured from superficial view matters of exhaustless interest beneath.

It will be perceived that we do not anticipate completion of the work of developing the Natural History of Georgia. No, centuries may pass, and no end shall be seen to the widening way, that generations may illumine by their efforts. The way shall grow broader, and the objects shall become more majestic, but no end shall be reached.

Man is placed in this world to supply all his physical wants from the objects around him. Not by their spontaneous production, but to be developed by his ingenuity and skill. He stands amid concealed blessings, which are to be elaborated by the exercise of powers his Creator has implanted within him. He is placed under the control of physical laws, of which naturally he is ignorant; and with no instinct to guide him in their application, to administer to his interests or happiness. The earliest attention to natural history consisted in collecting from the mineral kingdom substances that may serve in their natural state useful purposes, or may afford, by reduction, the various metals for all the numerous applications for which they are employed; the gathering from the wild, indigenous vegetables, those that by culture may afford food, clothing, and materials for useful arts; the seeking among the animals such as may, by domestication, administer to the wants of man. These constituted the earliest objects of natural history. These ends the immediate descendants of Adam, to a greater or less degree, attained. And all nations, to a greater or less extent, have done the same.

In all past ages, man has failed in obtaining these ends, by anything like a correct knowledge of the true conditions of success. He has acted by no intelligence, as to the nature or relations of the objects with which he has had to deal.

Nature, in her bountiful goodness, has made the conditions of partial success so easy, that the most unskilful management will supply the necessary wants of man. With this he has been contented. So forgetful has he often been of the interest he had in developing the resources of the regions he has visited, and become an inhabitant of, that he has carried with him the productions of his fatherland, and dwelt centuries amid ob-

jects, and regardless of them, that, with the slightest care, might have conferred benefits beyond conception.

This position is abundantly supported by cases in our own country.

We propose treating of Natural History as a source of benefit to individuals and communities.

What is more simple, or easier of comprehension, than innumerable arrangements of vegetable structure and growth? Let the youth see the incalculable mouths on the under sides of leaves, which are pumping up the noxious gases of the atmosphere, and emitting in its stead the vital air of animals. Let him see that the splendid colorings of the beautiful flowers are produced by a slight change in the green color of leaves, shining through cells slightly disarranged, and disarranged for this very purpose. Let him learn, by the simplest experiment, that a great part of the material of plants comes from the exhaustless storehouse, the air. Would he grow up and be guilty of converting fertile lots into barren wastes? He would learn that Nature holds out to his acceptance wealth in ever-increasing fertile fields, if he will receive and practise her simplest lessons. She has thrown within the reach of every one, who possesses a field in this land, the means of making it more productive for ages to come, without ever leaving its boundaries, or carrying an ounce of material on to it; and he may export his cotton, grain, and meat, in the meantime. The blowing winds shall supply all deficiency, if he will allow them to do it, and keep what they bring, when they have brought it.

Every old red hill in Georgia is an ugly index of the palpable violation of nature's simplest laws. Every barren field proclaims, by its desolateness, the trampling under foot of the plainest teachings of the great volume of God's creation. They both stand out as unmistakable proofs of the bad instruction of the children of an agricultural community. An exhausted soil, poor animals, imported productions, in a State that lies beneath a sky more genial than covers any portion of the globe, argue most conclusively that something is wrong in the impulses that propel the social machine. A man, digging in the Silurian period for coal, as we have seen in Cherokee, presents no less ridiculous appearance than would one who was dredging a pond to catch mocking-birds. His earliest elementary teaching ought to have been better.

People of Georgia—you have mountain districts for cattle and the coarser grains, lying geologically on the most fertile strata. You have middle regions for all the finer productions of a temperate climate. You have almost tropical plains of the South, for the hardier intertropical productions. You have a long line

of sea-coast lined with fertile islands, for all the peculiar productions requiring oceanic influences. Are there not in Georgia all the climates of the United States? Not a plant or animal that grows within the limits of the Union, that cannot be grown to perfection within the limits of Georgia.

Observe your soil. That of Cherokee, from the decomposition of the Silurian period, best fitted for all the products of a temperate climate, the very same as the most productive portions of the globe. The soil of Middle Georgia, much of it decomposed syenite, abounding in burned clay and oxide of iron, and best fitted to catch the fertilizing gases that load the air, abounding in potash and the phosphates, the essential elements of a productive country. The porous and deep soils of the lower regions, especially adapted for all the productions of the warmer portions of the globe. We have deposited within the earth the greatest variety of mineral substances. *Iron* is found throughout a great part of the State in exhaustless quantities, and of a kind best suited, by reduction, for the production of the finest qualities of manufactured iron. *Copper* in unlimited abundance, and ready formed for the manufacture of the important compounds of this useful metal. *Gold* is found in abundance, happily tasking the ingenuity and skill of our citizens for its rapid production in an isolated state. *Lead* and *silver* are found; but no attention has been directed to the development of these metals. *Mercury* is found pure, issuing from the clefts of rocks. Diamonds exist within the State; and this priceless mineral will yet, we have little doubt, stand among the productions of Georgia. *Lime*, in many varieties, forms mountain masses. Hydraulic limestone, so important a product, is found in unlimited quantities. Marls and greensand, abounding in organic matter and phosphates, are spread over large portions of the poorer regions of Georgia; and, by bringing them to the surface, we would load with luxuriance these now neglected sections of our State. Porcelain clay, of the finest quality, for all the demands of the most extensive potteries, is found in various locations. Materials of the finest glass are without limit. Burr-stone, second only to the French, is one of our Eocene formations.

Salt and coal are not largely found in Georgia; but Nature seems to have taken especial care that the State should be an easy recipient of every blessing, when there would not seem room enough on her own surface. The Tennessee River is made to sweep down to her northern border. The banks of this river abound in coal, and by its waters we are placed in direct contact with inexhaustible quantities of this valuable deposit. Salt, in enormous quantities, might be manufactured on what are now the useless marshes of our sea-board.

Look at the vegetable productions of Georgia.

Give to our persimmon the care that the apple, pear, and peach have received, and it will stand prominent among the most delicious fruits that can come to our tables.

The olive grows wild in our swamps. Call it out and nurse it. Cultivate it, and the oil of Lucca shall not surpass its richness.

The grape abounds in great variety. With little or no care, two of the best grapes now cultivated are of Southern production. We have others, some with all the powerful qualities of those most highly esteemed. Cross them and bring out their qualities, and wine and oil shall gladden the heart of man, and make his face to shine.

That troublesome weed, the May-pop, will grow where nothing else can. Its fruit might lie side by side with the melons had with proper care. It has within it the elements of a luxurious product. We have a native gooseberry that might, undoubtedly, give us this delicious fruit, of which we are now deprived, as the foreign species will not flourish in Middle and Southern Georgia. We have a common shrub that yields a perfume unsurpassed by any other that enters into the finest productions of the perfumer's art; and others in combination can scarcely be equalled. The uses of the sweet potato are not half developed; so of the ground-pea; and cotton-seed is worth raising for its own sake. For illumination, it is unequalled.

In medicinal plants, our State abounds. In special cases, there are no more valuable remedies than the *Styllingea sylvatica*, *Calycanthus floridas*, *Smilax*, *Pseudo-China*, and others that space forbids our naming.

Our *Bignonias*, even in their wild state, are inferior to none of the imported varieties. Our Azaleas surpass, in every element of beauty, every product of the exotic gardener's care. He labors, and by hybridization gets a decent flower of this genus. But we could take him to the hill-sides of Monroe and Crawford, and exhibit to him collections that as far surpass his productions in magnificence and variety as the broad hill-side surpasses his flower-pot.

Look at our *Pancratiums*, perfect giants, and splendid giants, too, beside the foreign flowers. Care for an *Amaryllis* would make it equal any of its foreign sisters, reared with so much care. Our *Bijaria*, *Rhododendrons*, *Salvias*, *Verbenas*, *Cerasus*, and others too numerous to mention, would deck a lawn, or beautify a garden that would not yield in any respect to Eastern magnificence.

How are these objects to be developed? By great discourses on developing the Natural History of Georgia? By appointing a State Geologist or Naturalist? By expenditure of State funds in an experimental garden? By State fairs? We answer, most

emphatically—no. All of these cannot accomplish it. They are all good in their places. The main spring lies back of these agencies. The impulse must originate in the hearts and desires, not only of the men and women, but of the youth of our land. The youth even must be made to feel that there ought to be something besides *money* and *show* in this world. That there ought to be *homes*. That these homes should each be an experimental plantation—not to raise the greatest number of pounds of cotton to the acre, all else disregarded,—or the largest mule, or fleetest horse, or the fattest hog; but to bring to perfect development, by intelligent management, all that Nature allows the locality to produce. Let the premises be an Eden, wherein bloom the flowers and ripens the fruit that, by the fragrance and beauty of the one, and the delicious perfection of the other, the soul and body shall expand together. When the principles of Animal Physiology and instincts shall be applied by an intelligence gained by patient and long induction to the perfection of every living being, from the bee to the horse, what a scene would such a plantation exhibit! It would be an Eden, indeed, all depending on the same intelligence, and communicating blessings each in its appropriate sphere.

What possible attractions could the wilds of Texas or Arkansas have for the proprietor of such a home? The young and enterprising might go to such regions, and found similar homes there. We want attractive homes throughout the land. Our wealthy planter often live where it must be a task to live, and for the reason they received no lessons from Nature's glorious volume in early years. Their children will come up in the same way, and when the soil is exhausted they must move farther West. There is nothing to bind them to the spot of their birth; it is desolate and unattractive. How sad to pass such spots, so frequent in our beloved State! The old farms desolate and forsaken, which ought to be the richest and most attractive, a might so easily be so.

A family bent on producing everything their locality will admit in its greatest natural development, and studying ever to aid and guide Nature in effecting desirable results by knowledge of her laws, would unquestionably receive even more money in the course of years than a family bent on making the most cotton possible every year. The former family, too, has been every year reaping richer harvests than the fields produced, in the happiness that results from almost perfect independence, and in the delightful interest that everything living creates, when growing and perfecting under the unobstructed laws of its own nature. All pour blessings into the souls of those who guide and keep them. All Nature herself becomes a minister of joy and happiness to such.

There is need of the young especially learning what are the prime, legitimate objects of human pursuit. They should learn that money or popular applause are not such objects. That the perfect accomplishment of the duties of our respective callings is the great object. Wealth and honor may come. If so, it is well. They are both desirable. But, if they come not, our great aim of life has not been thwarted. The merchant, mechanic, doctor, lawyer, may all accomplish the legitimate ends of their calling. But, is there a planter in this wide-spread land that does it? One who manages the vast interests of a single plantation—that fulfils with proper intelligence all the demands of his calling—in other words, that develops the Natural History of his own plantation? I answer, I do not believe there is; and with our present knowledge, there can be none. The planter is not to be blamed. There are many that are noble and learned men, and Georgia has some whose names shall be forgotten only when science and learning shall disappear from the earth.

We talk of learned professions; and if there is a son in a family that exhibits signs of unusual promise, he must be made a lawyer or a doctor. And it is a common notion, if a young man goes through college, and gets the little smattering of learning that is communicated there, he has too much knowledge for a farmer. Was there ever a more preposterous opinion afloat in an intelligent community? What! a man that has under his control all the varied conditions of animal and vegetable life—the high priest of Nature, standing between her and the millions that live upon her bounties, the results of her ministrations—does he need no mental power?

God fitted one man for the most responsible station of life. He made him wiser than all before or after him. We have no account of his bestowing upon him any of the learning of the schools. But in what was he learned? In nature. He spake, not only studied, but spoke or taught concerning the trees, from the cedar that is in Lebanon even unto the hyssop, that springeth out of the wall; he spake also of beasts, and of fowl, and of creeping things, and of fishes. This is recorded as a prominent part of the wisdom of Solomon. His first great decision between the two women that claimed the same child, and which astonished all Israel, was founded simply on animal instinct. Nature taught *him* the lesson that became so impressive on ages that followed.

It is a phenomenon of no little singularity, that in the middle of the nineteenth century, when the light of the Bible has been shining on Christendom for hundreds of years, that the position which the study of nature should occupy in our systems of education is undecided. It would seem that this should have been the first question settled. How, with the Bible in their

hands, and the expounders, too, of its sacred instructions, the founders of our schools, colleges, and universities could have made out their course of study, and not a small place even given to the study of this great volume that the same God has inscribed, is, beyond expression, strange; for it is only within a few years that Natural History has become a part of the course, in some of our colleges. It is a meagre part still in all of them.

The same world is spread around us that was spread around the gardens of Paradise; the same flowers deck its surface; the same minerals lie in its bosom; the same reptiles creep on it still; the same animals wander in its wilds; the same birds fly in its atmosphere; the same numberless creatures inhabit the sea; the same heavens sparkle with their myriads of stars, or glow in the sun's greater splendor. Man has the same powers of mind. With such facts before them, is it not strange that some degree of prominence should not have been given to these objects of God's creation? Is not the Bible filled with allusions to this great storehouse of wisdom? And just in proportion as we advance in understanding the laws and natural teachings around us, in the same degree do we understand the sacred Scriptures. Let us recur, for a few moments, to this glorious volume of our Maker's will, and have some of its lessons on this topic. We take them only as examples of the allusions or statements in regard to Natural History.

In the first chapter of Genesis we have a distinct allusion to the three great classes of vegetation, which division has only been demonstrated in our own times. (Gen., i., 11.) "And God said, Let the earth bring forth *grass*, the *herb-yielding* seed, and the *fruit tree* yielding fruit after his kind, whose seed is in itself, upon the earth." Here are distinctly recognized the three great classes of vegetation, and in the order of their development, and in the order found fossilized.

In Ecclesiastes it is said that "the wind goeth towards the south and turneth about unto the north; it whirleth about continually, and the wind returneth again according to his circuits." What does this mean? Has it any meaning? He is showing the circle in which all things move, each having its ordained mission. Take the ordinary explanation of aerial currents, and it means nothing. But Lieut. Maury has demonstrated, by the aid of Ehrenberg's investigations and his own, that this expresses, in most simple and exact manner, the course of the winds. (See Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1850, p. 126. Also, Maury's Sailing Directions, p. 66.)

The internal heat of the earth is plainly indicated in the expression, "As for the earth, out of it cometh bread, and under it is turned up as it were fire."—(Job, xxviii., 5.) The meaning seems to be, that one of the strange things that God had ar-

ranged was, that the surface of the earth should yield bread, and yet beneath this same surface it should be as it were fire, that is, hot. In late years only, and after the most laborious induction, have philosophers settled down on this Bible doctrine.

In Psalm 135, we are called upon to praise God, and the prominent reasons assigned are, that he maketh the vapors to ascend from the ends of the earth; he maketh the lightnings for rain, that is, he maketh vapors to rise all over the earth; and he maketh lightnings or electricity for the use, that is, for the production of rain. That is, we should praise God, because he makes vapors to rise, and makes them fall in rain.

What special reason to praise God does the fact of vaporization afford? We should have no rain, no dew, no clouds; we might wet anything, and it would never dry. We could not live a moment. Our lungs would be furnaces in temperature. Our skin would parch with fever. Electrical action forms and sustains the vesicular vapor in the air, and by its passage off allows a coalescence of the particles of water, which fall in drops of rain.

In the 147th Psalm, a psalm of praise, one of the first reasons assigned for praise is, "who covereth the heavens with clouds; who giveth snow like wool"—that is, for the same use as wool. Who recognizes much reason for praise in these phenomena? Do commentators make out much? We have consulted none that do. The clouds equalize the temperature of climates. Look at England, growing vegetables scarcely enduring the climate of Georgia. Scatter the clouds and vapors from Georgia, and you would convert it into a field of ice in winter, and a burning desert in summer.

Snow is a covering like wool to wrap up the cold regions of the earth in. The clouds and snow are the bed-clothes in winter, and the clouds an umbrella in summer.

The 19th Psalm is a perfect exhibition of the works and word of God in apposition. The works speak to every soul in all places of his dominion. Do they do it now in the sense indicated? Who listens to their voice? Who gathers the wisdom when day unto day uttereth speech, and night unto night showeth knowledge? The much that is meant by these expressions few realize.

"Ask the beasts," says this same volume, "and they shall teach thee, and the fowls of the air and they shall tell thee; or speak to the earth, and it shall teach thee; and the fishes of the sea shall declare unto thee."—(Job, xii., 7, 8.)

Who asks of beasts to teach him? Who inquires of the fowls of the air? Who learns lessons of wisdom of the earth? Who listens to the declarations of fishes?

Did time permit, we could direct our attention to many things in which we might sit as pupils, and learn lessons of wisdom from these mute teachers, exhibiting by their instincts or construction the unsearchable wisdom of their Creator.

Besides those expressions on which the light of science has begun to shed its glimmerings, there are others that stand yet in majestic darkness. Who can conceive the meaning of the following from God's own address to Job:—"Canst thou bind the sweet influences of the Pleiades, or loose the bands of Orion? Canst thou bring forth Mazzaroth in his season, or canst thou guide Arcturus with his sons?" Who shall say that those mighty orbs, at distances more mighty for conception, do not exert a sweet influence over this globe of ours? Some future lover of nature may yet have his soul burn with unutterable joy in having discovered some as yet hidden power exerted by those distant systems, that shall give impressive import to these expressions of the Deity.

The Book of Job is a perfect exhibition of the intellectual tendencies of men educated in the schools and one educated in the teachings of Nature. The three friends argue like intellectual philosophers; but the young and rightly educated Elihu draws his teachings of a sound philosophy from the works of God alone. God condemns the former, and confirms by his own reasonings the positions of the latter. There is this striking peculiarity in all the allusions of the Bible. When they refer to well-known phenomena, they accord with common observation; but when they refer to matters not evident, they are always scientifically correct. Can this be said of any writing ever produced by man? Can it be said of the Poets, Philosophers or Historians of antiquity—of Homer, of Virgil, of Plato or Socrates? There cannot a case be found, where they depart from common observation, that they do not caricature nature. The wildest visions of imagination are treated as facts, while in the Bible, with numberless allusions, all are correct. And the Bible says that "the invisible things of him from the creation of the world are clearly seen, being understood by the things that are made, even his eternal power and Godhead."

In making up a schedule of studies, is it not strange that Bible exponents should have gone to Pagan Greece and Rome, and gathered thence three-fourths of the material with which to make out their course? The heads of youth filled with Heathen Greek, and God's glorious wonders trampled under foot. Not a spire of grass, or shapeless stone, or floating atom, that would not teach them more real wisdom than Greece or Rome, with all their learning, ever knew. They would teach of a God that thundered above Jupiter. They would teach of laws established, that rule this vast material universe. They would teach of obe-

dience to higher powers, and devotion to the accomplishment of the end for which they were created. They would show the eternal power and Godhead of their Creator by the very impulses, likes and dislikes impressed on their minutest atoms.

Children and youth should learn something of the great operations which have been set in motion for our constant benefit, and which are now by the learned and unlearned passed by with perfect indifference. They should learn the great laws of their being. They should become familiar with the nature and constitution of the materials of daily use. They should behold, in what is hourly passing before their eyes, the skill displayed in the phenomena exhibited. They should learn that the whole earth is full of *THY* riches.

Every object should answer more than a single purpose. It should add to our physical necessities, communicate intellectual pleasures, and teach a moral lesson.

The attention to material objects is objected to, from the supposed effect on the taste, imagination, fancy, and finer qualities of the mind and heart. This notion has originated from an entire misconception of the subject.

There is no useful or ennobling quality of the human constitution that is not improved, elevated, refined and strengthened by a familiar intercourse with, and accurate knowledge of, natural objects and laws.

Is not the taste of the painter, sculptor, or poet, determined by his truthfulness to nature? How can that exert any hurtful effect on the taste, which is the criterion of correct taste? The position needs no other refutation. The profound ignorance of nature of many of these producers stands out in their performances in the most glaring manner.

There can be no true pursuits of nature without imagination. The naturalist is impelled onward by imagination ever on the stretch. What can excite it more than to see beautiful scenes before us, and as we arrive at them, still more beautiful rising in the distance? How does imagination paint the still hidden scenes until perfection of beauty is merged in the great Creator! It is imagination that sees the "books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, and good in everything." They are not there to the dull eye of sense. Imagination rightly pictures them there.

Did fancy ever have a finer scope than when revelling amid the endless variety of nature's exhibitions? Variety infinite, grave, gay and fantastic, yet all harmonious and perfect.

The intellect here enjoys its finest field for effort. The lowest grade may find all things suited to its development and capacity. The noblest intellect finds its efforts baffled on the minutest atom. It falls back, and tries its powers on broader

and more open fields. Here it expands with the ever expanding scene. It may satisfy itself in luxurious ease, in pursuing at leisure the ever varying scene of knowledge already gained, or it may apply whip and spur and leap the opposing barriers that limit the explored fields, and bring back, with exhausted human powers, fruits from the banks of living streams and fertile vales, that no others have ever seen. But there its vision of utmost powers could descry no limit of new objects to entice pursuit. But human powers languished, and the pursuit must be given over to be recommenced, when this mortal shall have put on immortality.

The effects on the social and moral feelings I need scarcely allude to. Nature rightly studied becomes one vast temple, in which every object leads to adoration and praise. The Psalmist exclaims: "How great are thy works! A brutish man knoweth not; neither doth a fool understand this."

The impression on every rightly regulated mind, in studying the works of God, is the same as reading His word. They both teach the same great lessons. There may be bad naturalists; so there may be bad readers of the Bible. They are bad in spite of the influence, and not by its agency.

Its study harmonizes the action of all the powers. We might enlarge much on this influence, but time forbids. One fact must suffice. You never saw a crazy naturalist. You may search our lunatic asylums, and you will find none. In the thousands that have entered the great lunatic asylum of France, the Bicêtre, not a naturalist was ever found among its numbers. All other classes are found represented there—doctors, lawyers, divines, &c. We, of course, do not mean to imply that a naturalist might not be a lunatic from disease, or from strong hereditary predisposition, or that he might not be from other causes, or that one devoting himself exclusively to one branch might not be. We mean to assert, that nature is so arranged, that when studied as a whole, it requires in its pursuit the conditions most essential to perfect physical, mental and moral development.

It has often been asserted that the pursuits of Natural History were material, nothing elevating, spiritual, refined; all gross, unintellectual, lacking intelligence. If these assertions are intended to mean that there is nothing in the pursuits of Natural History tending to the worse than nonsensical jargon of the transcendental school—that sublimed nonsense that has become so fashionable in certain regions—we admit the accusation as true, and rejoice, more than all, in its truth.

But if it be intended to assert, that there is anything in the pursuits of Natural History tending to interfere with the highest development of that part of our nature that is ever stretching

after the unknown and spiritual, that sees in the vast universe the guiding hand of a higher and spiritual being, that checks the flights of the poet, or dampens the wings of imagination, we deny it most emphatically. We talk of *brute matter*. What do we mean? We talk of intelligence. What do we mean by that? We talk of spirituality. What do we mean by spirituality? It would be no difficult task to show that brute matter, as we call it, has finer sensibilities than any that we possess, and entirely beyond our comprehension, with all our boasted intelligence and spirituality.

What do we know of intelligence? We know it only as we see it manifested by actions. We talk of brute material as though it possessed no active impulses, and was insensible to any but mechanical influences, when its sensibilities are a thousand times more acute than ours, and its intelligence is entirely beyond our conception. Pass a magnet over our most delicate parts for sensibility, and over any number of substances, and we perceive no power, but pass it over other particles of brute matter, as we call them, and all are affected by its influence.

We admire the intelligence of the well-taught soldiers, as exhibited in their evolutions and arrangements with perfect precision, but how awkward and bungling are their movements, when compared with those of thousands of materials in their exact transformation and crystallizations! Did a band of the best trained soldiers ever equal, in the precision of their movements, the atoms of water in freezing, or the atoms of common salt in crystallization? Never.

We recollect, several years ago, seeing a company of soldiers return from Florida. The shore was lined with anxious spectators; wives waiting for their husbands, fathers and mothers for their sons, brothers and sisters for the returning brother's embrace. The boat came to the wharf; the command was that no recognition should be made expressive till all were dismissed. The soldiers landed and marched among their friends, and never seemed to know one of the multitude. Many hours passed in public congratulations, before the embargo on human sympathy was raised; but when it was, what a tumult of emotions, and what unreserved expressions of burning feeling!

So the most powerful affinities may be suspended, and atoms in absolute contact know not each other, although burning for embrace, but suspend the foreign command, and what a tumultuous meeting!

The presence of a great man has much influence on our actions. So the presence of certain bodies causes others to arrange themselves in ways they would not without such presence. The presence of diastase with starch causes it immediately to become sugar; the presence of sulphuric acid will accomplish like

results, and these substances themselves undergo no change. Who can measure the sensibility that makes the armature of the magnet in New-Orleans feel the impulse of chemical action in New-York, or of every particle of this globe on which we dwell, act in sympathy with every atom in Jupiter, Saturn, or Leverrier, in its almost measureless distance?

All this sneering about brute matter is but a glaring index of unreflecting ignorance, ever ready to vaunt itself on what it does not possess. It would require no long argument to make probable that matter and spirit are the same thing, under different laws; the same as matter under the laws of life is a different thing from matter under ordinary chemical laws. The Apostle says, (1 Cor., 15, 14,) "It is sown a natural body; it is raised a spiritual body." That is, the same body that was natural has become spiritual.

We are told, too, that an accurate knowledge of nature would spoil its poetry. *That* ignorance must be excessive, that could not see the degradation involved in making such an assertion.

What would you think of a man inclosed in a dense fog, and groping about in ignorance of all around him, and pleading for the continuance of this obstruction to his now useless vision, lest his ignorant imaginings might be destroyed, when by dissipating the fog, a boundless landscape would open on his view, materials of exhaustless interest for the most vivid imagination be gathered within his sight?

All that we would desire is, that this subject should be viewed in its true relations. When it is so viewed, the Natural History of Georgia will be developed with rapidity, and her old fields and barren hill-sides will disappear, and teeming harvests, perfect animals, mechanic products, applications of science to useful arts, and high intelligence, shall be exhibited to the inquiring stranger who visits the Empire State of the South.

Who can tell the interest and happiness his intercourse and communings with nature must bring? Does not the man, thus engaged, fulfil the end of his being as a father, neighbor, citizen of a State and country? Is not the world better for his passage through it?

We all have an interest in this development. None more than the inhabitants of a great city. We all depend on the productions of the soil, and whatever gives efficiency and prosperity to the agriculturist, gives wealth and importance to commerce, manufactures and arts.

But if we all had more disposition to commune with Nature, and heed her teachings, we should be greatly benefited. We should often find ourselves amid her silent works, and trace the workings of the hand of God in every quivering leaf, or flitting insect, or shapeless stone. No object would meet our eye in all

Nature's range, but it would speak to us of the God we serve and tell some tale of His benevolence and love. No jarring passions would be generated there. No heartburnings of brother against brother could find fuel there. No grovelling propensities could be cherished amid scenes so lavish of kindness and regard.

As we learned the structure and mode of action of the objects of our intercourse, lessons would become more various and impressive. No listless or careless observer ever felt the full force of that beautiful passage that fell from the lips of Him who spake as never man spake, when he would teach man his importance and impotence in the same lesson:—"Behold the lilies of the field, how they grow; they toil not, neither do they spin, and yet I say unto you that even Solomon, in all his glory, was not arrayed like one of these."

No Egyptian looms could weave a texture so exquisitely delicate and fine. No artist could mould organs so efficient, yet so fragile. No Tyrean dyes could give hues so soft and perfect.

Art. IV.—MORMONISM IN THE UNITED STATES.

THIS has often been styled emphatically an age of progress. Steam-engines and air-engines, magnetic wires stretching over continents and passing down into the caverns of the deep, railways binding together distant communities with the iron bands of a common interest—all these things show a vast physical advancement. No one can doubt that we travel faster and live better than our forefathers. But as regards real intellectual and moral progress, we confess we often know not what to think. The great mass of the community is certainly much better educated than formerly. But then the astounding fact strikes us, that in many places crime increases yet more rapidly than population or education. And we look with fearful apprehension upon that vast mass of ignorance and crime which is now accumulating in the lanes and alleys of our great commercial thoroughfares. The most eloquent writer of modern times has said, "that civilization itself might engender the barbarians who should destroy it; that in the very heart of great capitals, in the very neighborhood of splendid palaces and churches, and theatres, and libraries, and museums, vice and ignorance are producing a race of Huns fiercer than those who marched under Attila, and Vandals more bent on destruction than those who followed Genseric." In times of peace, and quiet, and plenty, they skulk in the recesses of gloomy alleys, and hide their rags and their hunger in filthy cellars. But in the evil days, when civil commotions arise in the State, when want comes like a strong man, then those birds flock like vultures at

the scent of carrion. Hardened by neglect, brutal by suffering, they pour forth from their dens, while peaceful citizens look aghast, and wonder whence these hideous objects have come. Like wild beasts within the iron bars of their cages, made ferocious by want of food and of fire, tantalized by the continual sight of wealth which they can never enjoy, it is no wonder that they are dangerous. What would be the result were the police force of one of our large cities withdrawn for a single night? Can imagination conceive the horrors of that night? We would almost as lief have been in the streets of Byzantium when Mohammed the Turk poured his savage hordes through them, as to be a citizen of New-York under such circumstances.

Another fact which causes us to be in doubt as to our real progress is, the recent prevalence among us of so many systems of imposture. The rank hot-bed of civilization seems to send forth poisonous plants even more profusely than useful ones. Millerism, Mesmerism, Mormonism, Bloomerism, and Spiritualism, all have flourished amazingly among us. And these systems of mischievous error and nonsense have sprung up, too, not on some remote frontier where the half-wild squatter seats himself in the primeval forest, not in those States of our Union where the poorer classes can scarcely obtain the rudiments of knowledge, and where a dissolute people scarce bear the weight of the criminal law, but in the most enlightened part of the country, in States which boast of giving to the poorest a free education, which boast that every crime is detected, and that every breach of law is punished. What must we conclude from these undeniable facts? Are we not retrograding in some respects while we are advancing in others? While we have more money and better morals than our forefathers, we do not think that we have a whit more common sense than they, and perhaps even a trifle less. An error now is productive of more mischief than a like error was two hundred years ago. An impostor then extended his influence beyond the bounds of his own neighborhood slowly, and with difficulty. Now every wild and wicked scheme finds its way in a few days to all parts of the civilized world, and everywhere finds persons weak or wicked enough to embrace it. It is true that the antidote flies as rapidly as the poison, yet surely the patient was in a better condition before he swallowed the poison than after he had swallowed both.

Of all systems of error and imposture, we would have supposed Mormonism to have been the least successful among our people. Its doctrines and its formulas are so foreign to our dispositions and habits of thought, that we should never have supposed that it would have gained a thousand proselytes among men of Anglo-Saxon blood. And yet, in little more than twenty

years, it has spread all over the globe, into nearly every civilized, and even into savage nations. From the beautiful farms of the great Valley of the West, from the streets of London and Manchester, from the far-off wilds of Australia, from among the dusky nations of the East, multitudes of men are looking forward with eager eyes to that Holy City which is rising by the waters of Deseret. During the first twenty years of its existence, Mormonism has spread more widely than Christianity or Islamism. We believe that Joe Smith has shown as much ability in the invention and arrangement of his system as did Mahomet. In some respects, we must give him credit for more sagacity and energy than the Arabian impostor. He sprang from humbler origin, and had far greater difficulties to contend with than had the Prophet of Islam. Ignorant, poor, and despised, he entered the lists with learning, wealth, and power, and came off conqueror. Who would have supposed that in the nineteenth century of the Christian era, in the very midst of a nation which boasts itself as being the most enlightened on the globe, in the very midst of newspapers, and churches, and seminaries of learning, there should rise up a man claiming to be a prophet from God; that this man should go on gathering to himself disciple after disciple, converts among the rich and the poor, among the learned and the unlearned, until his little band should swell to a great multitude; that driven from State to State, and persecuted from city to city, his followers should gain strength by every removal and every persecution; that they should build a city on the banks of the Mississippi, and rear a splendid temple in its midst; that, deprived of their prophet, and driven from their homes, their mingled hosts, gathered from nearly every civilized people, band after band should cross the great wilderness of the West, should penetrate the gorges of the Rocky Mountains, and there finding a land of promise on the shores of a great inland sea, and inclosed by a huge rampart of mountains, should there build a city of refuge which should be for a sign to the nations from afar; that sending out apostles from thence into all quarters of the civilized and of the heathen world, they should gather to themselves of all tongues, colors, and nations, until they became a mighty people and a sovereign State? And yet this has been, or is soon to be, the history of the Mormon Commonwealth.

Mormonism bears on its face the impress of an Oriental rather than of a Western system. It requires of its followers an implicit reliance on faith rather than on reason. Authority, and not argument, is its stronghold. It demands that all mankind should depend for their eternal destiny upon the simple, untested word of one man, and that man known in his youth to have been a liar and a scoundrel. We could scarcely have be-

lieved that among our skeptical, inquisitive, prying race, such a system would have existed a single day, much less that in twenty years it would rise up and occupy a place among the great religious systems of the day. But if we look a little more closely into its demands, and at the tendency of the human mind, we shall perhaps find a clew to this mystery.

There is a certain degree of dissatisfaction resting on the minds of most persons who hold the doctrines of Protestant Christianity. This feeling by no means arises from the nature of those doctrines, but from a quite different cause. It has been the good or bad fortune of Protestantism, ever since its origin, to be divided into a great number of denominations, differing in very important respects, and often bitterly hostile to each other. But the human mind always desires unity, and is displeased with diversity. As long as reason is regarded as the touchstone of religious opinions, so long will there be diversity of religious belief. The only manner in which unity can be obtained is by giving the manly pride of reason, and by receiving with childlike simplicity the will of God direct from heaven. To a mind wearied by the turmoils of religious factions, and the quarrels of spiritual guides, there remains no resource but Catholicism or Mormonism. Such a mind eagerly desires something which can relieve it of the burden of doubt, some system by which it can devolve upon a priestly counsellor the whole responsibility of its future welfare. Roman Catholicism offers something of this nature, but the stains of blood are yet too fresh on its skirts not to be remembered with horror. And all Protestants, too, have been educated from the very cradle with a holy prejudice against it, which adheres to the mind through after life with a tenacity that nothing can destroy. It is, we think, impossible that any large number of Protestants should become converts to the Romish Church. Our opinion is strengthened by observing what kind of proselytes Romanism has been making of late years from the Church of England. It has gained alone from that branch of the Church which is most disposed to uphold to their highest degree priestly prerogatives, and which is by no means averse to intolerant, or even to persecuting doctrines. Those pages of the history of the Roman Church which are the blackest to us are but an evidence of efficiency and sincerity in the eyes of these men. But by the vast majority of Protestant Christendom, constraint in religious opinions is regarded with extreme horror, and a Church, which has once incurred the odium of persecution, will bear the stains thereof to the latest generation. But from this fault Mormonism was necessarily free. Born but a day, even though it had the disposition, it never had the ability to persecute. It had not to atone for the blood of a St. Bartholomew, nor to wipe out the record of an

Inquisition. Free from violence, it sent forth a persuasive voice, winning those who were sick of the strife of Protestant sects, and who did not dare to apply to divine things that reason which so often deceived them in human things. To such minds Mormonism offered a peaceful retreat in her bosom. She quieted all their scruples, not by argument, but by special revelations from heaven, and her converts, strong in the simplicity of their faith, allowed their reason to slumber undisturbed. With the generality of minds, argument has a tendency to unsettle religious belief. But pure faith, beyond the pale of all argument, holds its votaries with a grasp of adamant. In the midst of perplexing and harassing doubts, when the mind, like the dove sent out from the ark, can find nowhere to rest its tired wings, it gladly looks forward to some sure foundation where it may fold them forever.

Practical and matter-of-fact as we Anglo-Saxons pride ourselves on being, we have yet a great deal of mysticism mingled with it. Take us on our every-day business, and we are coldly practical. We quote the shrewd, icy, worldly-wise maxims of Franklin with gusto, and pretend to be governed by them in our intercourse with the world. But it is useless to struggle against the nature implanted within us. The deep well-spring of feeling, though repressed, cannot be dried up. There is something within us at strife with our care-worn, working-day lives. There is a feeling of the supernatural far below the turmoil of every-day life. With awe we receive the slightest indications of a direct communication with the Supreme Being. Any one who pretends to such an intercourse, no matter with how little confidence we regard him and his revelations, will always command our attention. Skeptical as we may profess to be with regard to such communications, through the silent watches of the night, who does not tremble at the unearthly spectre, though merely conjured up by the imagination? To what tales do we lend a more attentive ear than to tales of supernatural visitants? Among the imaginative races of the East, this propensity to mysticism is carried to an extreme. It has existed there through all ages. It was one of the first symptoms of a corrupt Christianity. Asceticism carried it to the greatest extent. The ardent monk among the rocks and caves of the desert, his body emaciated by thirst and hunger, his mind wrought up to frenzy by impassioned prayer, saw visions of saints and angels, and held many a fierce battle with the tempter in his bodily shape. When he revisited the abodes of men, his body and his mind gave evidence of some awful conflict, and the credulous multitude flocked around him and struggled for a touch of his filthy garments. In their eyes his person possessed a holiness far above the majesty of kings, for

he had held converse face to face with his God. The ignorant monk, half knave, half enthusiast, brutal and filthy, was seated upon some Episcopal throne. No impostor pretending to hold intercourse with heaven, has ever yet failed of a crowd of followers. There is something in such an assumption that fascinates by its very audacity. The Roman Catholic Church has made great use of this engine in her operations. Her whole machinery of miracles and legends is arranged with reference to this principle in the human mind. By her images and her pictures, she brings the minds of her votaries directly in contact with beings of a superior world. Her age of miracles is not yet past, and she works one wisely now and then just to keep her hand in, and yet not often enough to make the power too common for vulgar admiration. But in the sternly simple, rigid ceremonial of the Reformed Churches, there are no visible, tangible marks of a communication with the Supreme Being. Everything is purely intellectual, no sensuous object is admitted, and too often the mind, impatient of metaphysics, incapable of severe, searching thought, turns away from the ideal to anything which presents the show of reality. That faith which is cold and doubting, while it listens to the account of miracles performed two thousand years ago, in another continent, and among an alien race, warms into intense life when it hears in impassioned words of the sick made whole, and of the dead raised in our own day and among our own people. We have already stated why this class of minds embraced Mormonism rather than Catholicism.

Mormonism purported to be a revelation from God. It did not reject Christianity, but merely engrafted itself upon it. It calmed the scruples and soothed the dogmatic pride of theoretical believers in the Christian religion. It took not away from them what they already possessed, but offered them a new and more glorious revelation. It treated with respect those venerable names, which even irreligious men consider as blasphemous to deride. It required no one to renounce the faith which he had always associated with the tears of a devoted mother, and with the hoary hairs of a revered father. It only added new doctrines to that faith. It aped the system of primitive Christianity. It had its holy writings, its miracles, its apostles, its prophets, its martyrs, and its community of goods. These inducements it offered to sincere converts. To the ambitious it offered a crowd of credulous dupes. To the avaricious it offered a prospect of unlimited swindling. Thus addressing all kinds of motives to all kinds of men, it is not wonderful that the Church of Latter-Day Saints gathered within its folds men of every name and of every character—the sincere and the enthusiastic, the profligate and the hypocrite, the designing leader,

and the credulous dupe. Of these elements was the Mormon Commonwealth composed.

And thus was presented the strange spectacle of a hierarchy and a theocracy established in the great Valley of the West. Such an engine for strong and vigorous government the world has seldom seen. Every act of the government, down to the minutest, was sanctioned by a special revelation from heaven. The Prophet, with a few of his coadjutors, ruled with absolute sway. Sturdy, roving sons of the forest and the prairie, men who had repelled with jealous pride all encroachments upon their personal liberty, men to whom even the restraints of ordinary law were irksome, brought their property and their persons, and laid them at the feet of the Prophet. That proud independence, which would have sternly thrust back all human authority, was bowed to the dust before the awful voice from heaven, and became the willing slave of a profligate despot.

Of the founder of this theocracy we would say a word. He was, undoubtedly, a man of extraordinary ability. How else could it have happened that a poor, despised, wandering profligate, could have raised himself in a few years to be Prophet, Priest, and King of a powerful commonwealth in the midst of our Republic? He presented that union of knavery and enthusiasm which is so characteristic of religious impostors of all ages. We all know from every day's experience that truth is not always the real object of the enthusiast. Self-aggrandizement enters largely into his calculations, and goads him forward with its perpetual spur. Drunk with success, he may at last become sincere, and believe what he teaches. He may regard the impulses of selfishness as the voice of God speaking to his mind. Of such seeming absurdity the human mind is not incapable. Such we believe to have been the history of the career of Smith. His discovery of the Golden Bible was, of course, a piece of rank and deliberate falsehood. And yet we believe that when the prophet-king stood in his island city, before the pillars of his noble temple; when he beheld stretching far through the streets the glittering files of devoted followers, ready to do his bidding; when he thought of the thousands of the converts to his faith scattered over the wide prairies of the West and among the green valleys of the East, and even far over the Atlantic, in the streets of European cities, he was a sincere convert to his own creed, and a believer in his own lies.

We cannot forbear drawing a parallel between the progress of Mahometanism and Mormonism. So long as the religion of Islam was propagated by merely peaceful means, it met with far less success than the Church of the Latter-Day Saints. And yet the path which lay before Mahomet was an easy one, compared

with that which lay before Smith. Within the empire of the Sassanides, from the Tigris to the Indus, the Magian priesthood forbade the use of images, and inculcated the doctrines of Spiritualism. For more than two thousand years, the Fire Worshipers of Media had striven unceasingly against the popular inclination to idolatry; and, in consequence, image worship had never prevailed extensively in Upper Asia. When, therefore, the lieutenants of the Khalif preached a yet purer spiritualism than that of Zoroaster, and proclaimed the unity of the Supreme Being, the subjects of Yezdegerd, already partially prepared by their own priests, could readily embrace the creed of Mahomet. As to the Christian East, it also was ripe for a change. An entire alteration had been wrought in Apostolic Christianity. In the minds of the intellectual, it had given place to Manicheism and to Gnosticism, the last feeble echo of ancient Greek philosophy. In the minds of the people, it had given place to the darkest ignorance and the most absurd superstitions. A philosopher who had lived in that age might well have doubted the divine origin of Christianity. Like so many other systems, it seemed to have run its time. It had risen, flourished, attained to its loftiest height, and now seemed sinking into helpless old age and imbecility. Well might the daring impostor, looking out from his sandy deserts, think that the time had come for another religion. He cunningly formed his system in accordance with circumstances around him, and did not attempt to raise men to meet the requirements of his system. He required neither purity of life nor self-denial. He pandered to every vicious principle, and to every baser passion. Ambition, revenge, lust, cruelty—every instinct of depraved human nature was not only tolerated, but even engrafted in his system. Thus was the path of success made easy before the false prophet of Mecca; and his religion went forth conquering and to conquer. From the waves of Biscay to the isles of the Eastern Sea, the Crescent ruled triumphant; and for more than twelve centuries it has stood like a mighty barrier against the Christian and the Pagan world, ever gaining more proselytes from the one than it has lost to the other. Islamism had every advantage of Mormonism. The one sprang into life in the midst of an ignorant people, and waged war with a corrupted religion. The other, slowly and painfully, worked its way into notice in the midst of intelligence and refinement, and waged war with the powerful champions of a vigorous Christianity. Arising from a knot of two or three knavish fanatics, it first assumed the semblance of a social community, and established itself in the State of Ohio, on the outskirts of the Great West. Torn by domestic dissensions, and hemmed in by an unbelieving population, the band of the Saints passed beyond the Mississippi, and pitched their tents in a

wilder land. But the rude squatters of Missouri took offence at their exclusive manners, and the stern rule of border Lynch law soon forced them to leave the State. Gathering strength from persecution, they recrossed the Mississippi, among a more friendly people. At length they pitched their tents on the banks of the Great Father of Waters, where its current, yet clear as crystal, flowing from the wild rice lakes of the north, and from under the shadow of lofty pines, winds among the beautiful islands of Illinois. There arose, as if by magic, the fair Island City, destined, as the Prophet fondly hoped, to be the Mecca of a mightier religion than that of Islam. There, in the centre of the Great Valley, would he send forth missionaries, who should penetrate to its remotest bounds, and gather in thousands of disciples to the Mormon City. And there, it is not unlikely, visions of a bolder nature flitted across his brain. He had risen rapidly from obscurity to eminence. From a poor, thriftless adventurer, he had become the prince of a powerful community. Thousands of swords were ready to leap forth at his bidding. What wonder, then, if the dangerous but dazzling vision had flashed across his mind, of leading forth his faithful thousands, with the Book of Mormon in one hand, and the sword in the other, announcing to the astonished republicans of the West the alternative of death or conversion? And what wonder if there rose up before him visions of glorious conquest and of far-reaching dominion, of the sceptre of empire passing away from the East to the West? What wonder if he felt within himself that it was possible to stir up all the disorganizing elements of the American nation:—the squatter element of the frontier, chafing at the restraint of law, and proud in extreme personal liberty; the discontented element of communism, fretting at its poverty, and looking with envious eye upon the possessions of the rich; the criminal element of our large cities, mad with restraint, and eager for license? What wonder if he, with these elements before him, should form the design of leading forth his enthusiastic followers, burning for action; of proclaiming liberty to the slave, and license to the poor; offering confusion to the restless, and the plunder of wealthy cities to the felon? What wonder if he saw himself founding an empire more durable than that of Mahomet, and building a capital more magnificent than that of Haroun, where, swaying a double sceptre over the minds and over the bodies of men, he might take his place as prophet and king, far above the great potentates of the earth?

But whatever schemes of ambition the Prophet might have revolved, were all cut short by an untimely death. He fell the first great martyr to his own creed. With his fall drooped for a time the fortunes of his disciples. The younger and more hot-headed burned to avenge the death of their leader with the

sword. But they were restrained by the prudence of the elders. Fierce dissensions arose among them. Rival claimants aimed at the place left vacant by the death of Smith. For a time it seemed as though civil commotions would rend them asunder. But the angry storms of persecution which hovered around them kept them together. All power gradually fell into the hands of the Oligarchy of the Twelve. The people around them became violently excited. A few Mormons had resisted the officers of the law, and this was magnified into a rebellion. The Holy City was represented to be a very sink of iniquity. A crusade was preparing to exterminate the very name of the Latter-Day Saints from the face of the earth. It became evident that the Mormons would soon have to fight for their City and their Temple, their homes and their firesides. And then they resolved to seek a new abode far from the haunts of civilized man, where the hand of persecution could reach them no more, and where they could enjoy their own religion, uncorrupted and undisturbed by the rest of the world. A spot was soon selected on the western slope of the Rocky Mountains, containing within its bosom an inland sea, with many a fertile valley, and many a clear, winding river. Hither, to this lonely Oasis of the Desert, they resolved to transfer the whole Mormon Commonwealth.

The vanguard left Nauvoo as pioneers to clear the way. Then came the stout warriors, the women and the children, the flocks and the herds. They traversed the prairies of Iowa, sowing and gathering from the rich soil the harvests as they went. The mighty tide of human beings poured over the Missouri, and entered the Great Desert of the West. Slowly and painfully they journeyed forward, as the Israelitish host had journeyed through the wilderness of Kadesh and Tein. Famine and pestilence, and all kinds of suffering, went with them. The vultures hovered over them all along their dreary road. It seemed that, like the Hebrews of old, the generation which had left the land of bondage would perish by the way. All up the valley of the Nebraska, their path could be traced by the graves which they left behind them. Still they journeyed on. The red man molested them not, for, like himself, they had been driven from their ancient homes, and from the tombs of their fathers. They passed through the gorges of the mountains. The last faint echoes of Eastern civilization died away. They had entered upon a primeval land. At length, standing upon one of the western spurs of the Sierra, they looked down with wonder upon the waters of the Great Salt Lake sparkling in the rays of the western sun. Their Promised Land lay before them. Free from all human molestation, they could there worship according to the dictates of their consciences. Soon by the

waters of Utah there arose a populous city, and there was laid the foundations of a Temple far more magnificent than that which they had left on the banks of the Mississippi; and the valleys of Deseret swarmed with an industrious and enterprising people.

And now of the Mormon Bible. The world is well acquainted with the circumstances of its origin and publication. We think that internal evidence bears out these facts. It is evidently the work of a more cultivated mind than that of Smith. It has a unity and consistency of design which causes it as a literary production to rank far above the Koran. But here and there appears a shred of coarser material put in by some ignoble hand. These interpolations are undoubtedly the work of Smith. There is no mistaking these additions. They bid defiance to the rules of syntax, of orthography, and of criticism. They stand out in bold relief to the finer material of the work. The fact is well known that the Book of Mormon was written by an invalid clergyman, who had visited those strange mounds which are scattered over the Great Valley of the West, and who had pondered over them till his imagination connected them with the history of an unknown and an unreal people. The history of this people is the Book of Mormon. This book, as a work of imagination, does not stand high. It rises but in a few places above the level of not only plain, but bald narrative. In aping the phraseology of the Bible, its author has grievously erred, for the mind of the reader is constantly forced to make comparisons, and always to the disadvantage of the Book of Mormon. The chapters borrowed from Isaiah shine forth like purple among rags.

———"purpureus pannus assuitur, et splendeat late."

At the confusion of tongues, after the building of Babel, a patriarchal community roamed eastward, under the sovereignty of Jared. They at length reached the borders of the Eastern Sea. By the command of God, they built vessels tight above and below like a dish. There was a hole in the top by which air could be admitted at times, and another in the bottom, the use of which is not so apparent. These barks did Jared freight with beasts, and birds, and seeds, like the ark of Noah. Nor was the honey-bee forgotten, long afterwards destined to be the emblem of the Mormon faith. To these vessels did the patriarch commit himself and his families, without sail, oar, compass, or rudder. They were swept by strong west winds across the wide Pacific. They landed on the coast of the Western Continent, then a primeval wilderness, fresh from the hand of its Creator. There they increased and grew till they became a mighty people. Splendid cities spread over the land, tenanted by a swarm-

ing population. But they brought the seeds of evil with them. They became corrupt before God. Ambition and revenge hurried them on to desolating wars. The offspring of Jared struggled fiercely for the noble empire founded by their father. Prince set up against prince, dynasty subverted dynasty, son rebelled against father, and brother murdered brother. It is merely the old story of Oriental despotism transplanted to the New World. They gradually lost the faith of their fathers. Ever and anon prophets arose amongst them to warn them of their evil ways, but in vain. They waxed more brutal and more savage. At length all the children of Jared were arrayed against each other under two rival claimants for the throne. Battle followed battle, and slaughter followed slaughter, with fearful rapidity. Neither men, women, nor children were spared in that horrible carnage. The posterity of Jared was cut off from the face of the earth. One of the rival kings perished by the hands of the other, and the survivor fled from his desolate kingdom, and wandered in the wilderness. The prophet Ether engraved upon plates the history of the sons of Jared, and then laid down to die. The Western Continent was again an uninhabited wild.

In the first year of Zedekiah, King of Judah, there dwelt at Jerusalem a godly man named Lehi. He mourned over the wickedness of his countrymen, and saw that the hour of their destruction was near at hand. He left his house and his lands, his silver and gold, his flocks and herds, and with his wife and four sons, he turned his back for ever upon the Holy City and the Promised Land, and dwelt in the Arabian desert. But he carried the elements of evil out with him. Two of his sons proved rebellious and wicked. After many adventures and dissensions in the wilderness, he received a command from God to depart into a far country. He provided wives for his sons, and collecting all manner of seeds and beasts, the tribe commenced its wanderings. But dissensions attended them at every step of their progress. The spirits of good and evil were constantly at work in this little patriarchal community. Nephi was their Ormuzd and Laman was their Ahriman. The authority of the old patriarch Lehi descended to his younger son Nephi. The ball of brass with its spindles was their pillar of cloud by day, and their pillar of fire by night. Finally, after eight years of wandering eastward, they came to the sea Irreantum, which is, being interpreted, "many waters." There they built a ship and passed over to the Western Continent. The dissensions, which had begun in the Arabian desert, followed the wanderers to their new abode. The children of Nephi and the children of Laman perpetuated the quarrel of their fathers. The Lamanites forsook the ancient traditions and the law of

Moses, and turned to idolatry. With their religion they lost their civilization. They dwelt in the wilderness like the sons of Ishmael, and their hand was against every man, and every man's hand was against them. Between them and the Nephites was waged a ceaseless war. As long as the Nephites clung to the law of Moses, and hearkened to the voice of their prophets, success attended them. But they gradually became corrupt, and fell away from the worship of the true God. In the words of the son of Lehi: "Our lives passed away, like as it were unto us a dream, we being a lonesome and a solemn people, wanderers cast out from Jerusalem; born in tribulation, in a wilderness, and hated of our brethren, in the midst of wars and contentions; wherefore we did mourn out our days." At length the people of Nephi, like the Lamanites, became thoroughly corrupt, and God warned Mosiah and the few who still adhered to the traditions of their fathers, to flee out of their native country. They wandered through the wilderness, and came into the land of Tarahemla, among a kindred people, who till then had been totally unknown to them.

At the carrying away into captivity of Zedekiah, a portion of his people wandered eastward, and arrived on the borders of the Great Sea. There they built a fleet, and passed over into the Unknown Land. But unlike the sons of Lehi, they had brought with them no written records. Their oral traditions were becoming dim and faint, when the communication was opened between them and the Nephites. When Tarahemla first led his people into this land, a solitary and homeless wanderer came to them out of the wilderness. His name was Coriantumr, the last sovereign of the house of Jared, and sole survivor of the ruin of his race. He dwelt among them nine moons, and then slept with his fathers. For many hundred years the dynasty of Nephi ruled over the land of Tarahemla. The original land of Nephi passed under the sway of the Lamanites, and its corrupted people became incorporated with them. The children of Laman became more and more savage. They lost not only the art of writing, and all written records, but all oral tradition. They lived by hunting, and pasturage, and robbery. They ate the raw flesh and drank the blood of animals. Between them and Tarahemla there existed ceaseless war.

About one hundred years before Christ, and five hundred years after the settlement of the land, the dynasty of Nephi ceased to reign, and Judges were over the land of Tarahemla. But the leaven of rebellion was in the people, and they became extremely corrupt. Their external dissensions and their foreign wars waxed fiercer than ever. The Nephites and the Lamanites slaughtered each other without respite and without mercy. The

capital of Tarahemla was taken by herdes of savages, and the State was brought to the verge of ruin. But the skill and courage of Moroni rolled back the tide of barbarian invasion, and saved his country. After the death of the aged warrior, the State sunk rapidly to decay. At length the fulness of time was come. Six hundred years had elapsed since Lehi passed out of the gates of Jerusalem, to return no more. Christ appeared on earth. On the night of his birth, the sun went down as usual, but no darkness followed his departure. The prophet Samuel, out of the land of Laman, had foretold this; yet the people turned not away from their sins. Wickedness spread abroad over the face of the earth, though a chosen few still kept their faith and the traditions of their fathers. The children of Laman and the children of Nephi still carried on their perpetual wars. But in the six hundred and thirty-fourth year from their departure from the Holy Land, while they were engaged in ruining one another, they were overtaken by a common destruction. A thick darkness of three hours' duration fell upon the land. One great city was swallowed up by an earthquake. Another was buried beneath a lofty mountain. The waters of the deep covered another. Some were carried away by whirlwinds, and their places knew them no more. The capital itself was burned with fire. When the darkness passed away, Tarahemla was a ruin. While the survivors of that fearful day were yet bewailing the loss of their friends, and the ruin of their country, Jesus himself in a bodily shape appeared amongst them. He reiterated to them the instructions which he had already given to the stiff-necked and rebellious Jews. By the power of his Spirit, the Nephites and the Lamanites were all converted, and for a time peace rested upon the land. But the same causes which have corrupted Christianity in the Old World also corrupted it in the New. In the fourth century after Christ, the old distinction of Nephites and Lamanites was again revived. War was waged with more ferocity than ever. The Nephites continually lost ground. City after city was sacked by the sons of Laman, and every trace thereof utterly destroyed. At length the men of Nephi gathered themselves, their wives, and their little ones together on the hill of Camorah, for a final struggle. There, in the three hundred and eightieth year after Christ, the remnant of the Nephites, two hundred and thirty thousand in number, engaged the whole host of the Lamanites. And there, after a sanguinary struggle, the very name and remembrance of Nephi perished from out the land. Moroni, the son of Mormon, alone survived. Having engraved this record on plates of gold, and having collected all the plates on which was engraved the history of his fathers, he hid them in the hill of Camorah, the great tomb of his race, and then like Coriantumr, the son of

Jared, he wandered forth to die alone. With him perished the civilization and the Christianity of the Western Continent, and none save the Lamanites were left to inhabit the land. Such is the record of the Book of Mormon.

We look with astonishment at the progress of this wonderful people. Transplanting the institutions of the mystic East into the practical and active West, reviving the old Hebrew theocracy among the backwoodsmen of the Mississippi, uniting the voluptuous sensuality of the Oriental harem with the stern virtue and far-seeing shrewdness of the American republican, these, we confess, are anomalies of which we cannot determine the result. Shall our boasted institutions be overturned from an obscure quarter, whence we now dread no harm? Shall we witness the rise of a new system of religion more energetic than Islam, and more potent than Rome, spreading through our Western Continent, from the frozen zone of the north to the frozen zone of the south, introducing theocracy in place of republicanism, and polygamy in place of marriage? Has the world completed one grand cycle of belief, and are we destined to go back to the patriarchal age, and to commence the great year anew? These queries may seem absurd, but the generation which has witnessed the rise and progress of Mormonism should hesitate long before it pronounces what is good sense and what is nonsense—what is probable and what is improbable.

Art. V.—LOUIS NAPOLEON AND THE FRENCH.

MUCH has been written and spoken concerning the young French Octavius, who now in the name and right of his illustrious uncle, the great Julius, sways in splendid state the proud sceptre of Imperial France. And yet, after all, few appear to have formed their opinion of old Cæsar's intrepid boy upon grounds more specious than that of preconceived prejudice, or the extreme, defamatory exaggerations of misguided political zealots. The simple fact that his usurpation was opposed by such seemingly devoted *patriots* as Guizot, Thiers, Changarnier, Ledru Rollin, and Raspail, and indeed that whole race of Jacobin statesmen, who, from the day that beheld the downfall of the Monarchy to the re-establishment of law and order under the strong executive government of Prince Napoleon, were anxiously looking forward to a recurrence of the diabolical orgies of the "Reign of Terror," in the fond expectation of being called upon to run the mad and brilliant career of Robespierre, Danton, Barriere, Marat, Hebert, Chaumette, and Couthon, was of itself sufficient evidence to the political

alarmists of Christendom to raise their voices against the enormity and flagitiousness of Napoleon's splendid *coup d'état*. So, no sooner had the young chieftain placed him at the head of the veteran legions of the Republic, and with a firm and daring hand planted the oriflamme of the ancient Empire upon the dome of the Tuileries, than the batteries of the press were opened upon him with all the rancor and virulence that unlicensed freedom could suggest: print followed print, each vying in boldness and scurrility the tone of its predecessor: the seven vials of public indignation were poured out in merciless fury upon the devoted victim; and, in comparison of him, Elagabalus, Domitian, Caligula, and Nero were made to appear pure and immaculate; Dyonisius of Syracuse became merciful; and all the black and infamous names that have disgraced the annals of mankind were invoked, in order to show more strongly, by contrast, the horrid outlines of this huge political Cyclops. Fifth-Monarchy brawlers and philosophic sucklings; pot-house magazines and fourth-rate newspapers; loud-mouthed levellers and red, very red, and right red Republicans, loudly exclaimed against the tyrannical, upstart Government, and professed to shed plenteous tears over the grave of departed French Republicanism. The English lion roared, shook his shaggy mane, and lashed the air in awful fury, only to be followed by the low, muffled mew of the American Jackal.

Such was the almost universal sensation produced by the ascendant of the splendid star of Napoleon. That he has been misrepresented, few who have attentively studied the history and character of the events that elevated him to supreme power, will have the hardihood to controvert.

Who, and what, then, it may be inquired, is Louis Napoleon? He is a worthy scion of the illustrious house of Bonaparte; he is the lawful representative of the majesty of the second, in importance, of the Continental powers; he is the heroic adventurer who, when Anarchy, with dark-brooding wing, was preparing to hover over the nation, fearlessly threw his fortunes into the balance, and caused Anarchy to kick the beam; he is the dauntless spirit who, when all France was dreaming absurd dreams, and foolishly fondling its fingers, courageously acted and executed, and dared to call his actions patriotism; he is the skilful architect who, when the pyramid of society was upturned and resting on its summit, restored it, by replacing it on its base; he is the philosophic statesman who, when called upon to administer the affairs of a great and powerful nation, proved himself as equal to the task as he has been faithful to his trust. But in order to estimate properly the true genius and character of the Emperor of the French, it is necessary to consider them in connection with those brilliant events which,

forming the exterior of what is known as the late French Revolution, created him temporary dictator, and subsequently prepared the way to the celebration of that splendid ceremonial which occurred in the chancel of the ancient Cathedral of Nôtre Dame; and in order to appreciate fully the nature of these events, the political reasoner had need to recur to the mediæval period of French history, dating even so far back as the reigns of Henry the III. and Louis the XIII.; where, discovering their origin and studying their formation, he can readily trace their spirit in its progress through many generations of national disquiet, convulsion, and bloodshed, down to its final consummation in the overthrow of the demon of Jacobinism in the middle of the nineteenth century.

The ancient Constitution of France resembled, in the earlier stages of its progress, the Gothic governments of Europe. Its infancy and youth were like those of England. The *Champ de Mars* and the *Wittenagemont*—the tumultuous assemblies of rude conquerors—were in both countries melted down into representative bodies. But the downfall of the Feudal Aristocracy happening in France before commerce had, as in England, elevated another class of citizens into importance, its power devolved on the Crown. France, as will be recollected, was also under the ancient government, an union of provinces, acquired at various times, and differing in constitutions, laws, language, manners, privileges, jurisdiction, and revenue. It had the exterior of a simple monarchy, but was in fact an aggregate of independent States. The monarch was, in one place, King of Navarre; in another, Duke of Brittany; in a third, Count of Provence; and in a fourth, Dauphine of Vienne. These provinces received the designation of the "States-General," when represented in the National Assembly. Their powers, however, from the conclusion of the fifteenth century, existed only in name. The reign of Louis the XIII. saw their political importance partially restored, but they were speedily extinguished, when Louis the Magnificent commenced his splendid career, whose swollen exchequer, disciplined armies, and insatiable ambition emboldened him to dictate to foreign powers, and to centre within himself, in matters of domestic administration, all the scattered rays of civil jurisdiction. Under the lavish munificence and imperial patronage of this prince, whose reign has reflected more glory and dishonor upon the French nation than any sovereign of the long line of Capet, arose talents at once the most commanding, virtues the most specious, and vices the most splendid. The mild Fenelon, the sublime Bossuet, the facetious Boileau, and the deep, impassioned Corneille, were wont to tremble at the same rod which struck terror into the hearts of Pascal and Bruyère, and connived at the ruinous measures of

Mazarine and Colbert. Never were the glory of heroism and the splendor of conquest more magnificently and recklessly illustrated, than by the memorable reign of Louis the XIV. Taxes were levied at the pleasure of the crown; armies were raised and appointed, navies built and equipped at the sovereign's will; and edifices and public works arose in every direction, whenever the Grande Monarque wanted a suburban harem, or desired the wheels of his state coach to run more smoothly between the Tuileries and Versailles. At the suggestion of a fanatical monk, a decree goes forth, under the royal signature, to slaughter the heretics of Languedoc; at the caprice of a ministerial minion, fifty Imperial towns are swept from the list of free States by a single dash of the pen; and, at the frown of a regal strumpet, an order is issued to lay in ashes the smiling villages of the Palatinate. Commerce, agriculture, and the fine arts flourished at home, whilst this stormy son of the sword feasted his legions on the bounty of neighboring and foreign princes. The sails of France were seen on every sea; the vine-hills of Provence offered their maximum yield to the toiling husbandman, and the youth and chivalry of the nation gathered around the standard of the Magnificent, Louis the Conqueror. But the seeds of conquest sown on this, bring forth a rank harvest of evils in the succeeding reign.

No sooner had Louis been borne to St. Dennis, than the regency of the dissolute Orleans commenced. Weak, rapacious, and arrogant, he strove to carry out the measures of the powerful Louis. So the policy of the former administration became the heritage of the regency. Fleury, as premier, succeeded for a time in repressing the martial spirit of the nation, and strove by every measure to direct the energies of the State to the cultivation of the arts of peace; but no sooner had the regency expired, and Louis the XV. ascended the throne, than the torch of war was kindled anew, and the veteran armies of France, assembling under the labarum of her ancient kings, and conquering with the valorous Saxe, at Fontenoy, carried on war with various success in Holland, till hostilities were concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Exhausted by conquest, and depressed by a weight of impost and debt, which nothing but its great national resources and industry could have withstood, France at length submitted to the counsels of the wise and benevolent Turgot. But to such an enormous amount had the national expenditure reached, that it exceeded the annual income by 115,000,000 of livres, or about £4,750,000. This disproportion between income and expense entailed upon France all the evils of national bankruptcy.

At this conjuncture, Louis the XVI. came to the throne. The crafty and rapacious Calonne succeeded Turgot as premier; and

with all the recklessness of a spendthrift, and the narrow-mindedness of a Parisian banker, whose life had been spent in the petty details of commerce, was self-sufficient enough to take under his conduct the regulation of operations so extensive as that of a vast and complicated system of national finance. He failed completely; and with him the entire credit of the nation. There was now but one way by which France could hope to find relief from the burden of her present financial embarrassments, which was to guarantee her ruined credit by the sanction of the national voice; and that voice could only be collected by means of the States-General, which was a dangerous method, as the resumption of their ancient power and privileges, which had for nearly two centuries been usurped by the Crown and the Parliament of Paris, would, by altering the established order of things, bring about fearful changes, and sow the seeds of civil commotion. But, being the only constitutional method, an Assembly of the Notables was therefore summoned for this purpose by the king. This Assembly partook of the nature of a privy council, taken from the body of the nation, to advise the sovereign in all great emergencies. With the dissolute Calonne at their head, they began to concert measures for disbursing the liabilities, and restoring the bankrupt credit of the nation. The most specious and plausible method of accomplishing this, and which was urged with great spirit and address by Calonne, was an equalization of imposts, and the abolition of the pecuniary exemptions of the nobility and clergy. This measure, at once hateful to the nobility, odious to the great body of the people, and stoutly opposed by the Notables in council, brought the powers of government in direct conflict with the national will, and hurled the wily minister from his seat in the royal cabinet. This event, unimportant as it may at first sight appear, constitutes the initial link of that memorable chain of causes which eventuated in the terrible convulsion of May the 5th, 1789.

The succeeding ministry, impressed with high notions of the royal prerogative, and ambitious of signalizing their administration, by making open opposition to the popular will, feared not to follow in the footsteps of the exiled Calonne. But public opinion had been restored by the bold opposition assumed by the Notables towards the government, and the spirit of the whole nation was aroused to the importance of now interposing its voice. The Parliament of Paris accordingly contended for a share in the sovereignty, which, if admitted by the Crown, would have amounted to an absolute negative upon all its acts. It was, therefore, boldly opposed by the ministry; but the Parliament openly withheld compliance, and went so far as to refuse the registration of the royal edicts, resolutely affirming that no imposts could be levied on the nation without the consent of

the representatives of the departments, and demanded for that purpose an immediate convocation of the States-General. For this contumacy, they were banished to Troyes, and the Cabinet, with a view of carrying out its financial scheme, *had recourse to a forced registration* in order to meet the urgent claims against the State. The nation was thus taxed at the pleasure of the Crown.

At this juncture of affairs, M. Necker, a successful and retired banker of Paris, though possessed of no enlarged views of policy, and destitute of those great qualities of understanding so serviceable to States in periods of convulsion, was summoned to the council board by the king: but with all his distinguished virtues and mature experience, his wise policy was unavailing in the terrible crisis that was then near at hand, and preparing, like a violent tornado, to burst in fury upon the nation. The spirit of disaffection had made its way into the provinces, and they were preparing to march large armies to the rescue of their deputies, when Louis, for the first time, discovering the temper of the nation, and regretting the folly he had committed in summoning the Assembly of the Notables, consented, at the instance of Necker, to a convocation of the States-General. For two hundred years their voice had been silent in the councils of the nation. The Parliament of Paris had, during that long interval, legislated for the Provinces, and, in conjunction with the Crown, had wantonly usurped the constitutional privileges of these ancient and powerful corporations. They met: and ever memorable will be the epoch which that meeting dated in the annals of the human race. The States of Dauphine, Languedoc, Velay, Provence and Bretagne, elated with visions of future glory by the reintegration of their ancient liberties, promptly assembled their deputies at Versailles in obedience to the commands of the King. This body, thus assembled, was under the ancient constitution a sovereign, constituent *Legislature*; but having been deprived by the downfall of the Feudal system—of which they were powerful and independent feuds—of all authority in the administration, and their power having devolved of necessity on the Crown and the Parliament of Paris, their reassemblage constituted them immediately a National *Convention*, vested with plenary powers to reform and organize the government on such principles as best suited the exigencies of the times. The meeting, then, of the States-General constituted what is known as the "Revolution," inasmuch as it effected a total and radical change in the forms and spirit of the Constitution.

Events succeeded the most momentous and unexampled in the history of mankind: the nation was on the brink of civil war; the king declared the States-General dissolved; the Third Estate boldly replied, "The nation assembled have no orders to

receive;" and declaring themselves a National Assembly, proceeded to the abolition of orders, the equalization of imposts, and the union of the Legislature in one body. The king protested; the clergy remonstrated; the nobles frowned, threatened, and shook their fists; but all to no purpose, for the commons were inflexible, and knew that they would be supported by ninety-six one-hundredths of the nation. Louis, as a dernier resort, summoned the National Guard to the rescue of the Crown. It ingloriously deserted: Paris revolted: the Bastile was stormed: the King submitted. Then commenced the infernal saturnalia of the Bloody Reign; but its details are foreign to the purpose of this rapid sketch. Suffice it to say, after having made an experiment of every form of government, and rioted in every imaginable excess, France found herself, at the end of fifteen eventful years, quietly sheltered under the merciful despotism of Napoleon.

Napoleon, with the exception of a few unimportant alterations, effected no fundamental changes in the Constitution framed by the Assembly at their memorable meeting in 1789. It is true he struck out the importance of the departments from the chart of the Constitution, but this was merely in reference to their corporate capacity as formidable *political* bodies. In all that related to internal regulation and civil jurisdiction, they retained the essential rights of sovereignty. He saw the absolute necessity of establishing for France a strong, consolidated government. Her condition, both physically and morally, demanded it, and he shaped his policy accordingly. The military genius of this wonderful man has been deservedly enthroned along with that of Alexander, Cæsar, and England's Oliver; yet, splendid as it was, it pales before the lustre of his great civil talents. From the polity and laws which he framed for France, a body of political doctrine could be extracted, which, if adopted and practised, would render the French the most powerful nation on the globe. But with Napoleon fell the greatness of France; her liberties still survived, but the condition of their existence was inseparably connected with the energy of a powerful executive arm. Like Cæsar, Napoleon had been borne into power upon the swollen crest-wave of democratic frenzy, and when the tide began to ebb, and threatened to leave the shore strewn with wrecks, he coerced it by the force of despotism, and securely moored the vessel of State in the dock of public safety. Had the affairs of Europe, at his accession, been more settled, and had not forced upon him the necessity of pursuing a stupendous scheme of conquest, he would have early rescued France from the abyss in which she had been plunged by the National Assembly, and restored her to the liberties she enjoyed under the ancient line of Capet. But the

vessel had been loosed from its moorings, and when the storm set in, none better than Napoleon could so well exclaim with old Julius to his pilot, "*Quid times? Cæsarem vehis.*" The Constitution of France underwent no important changes during the Bourbon and Orleans dynasties that immediately succeeded the fall of the Empire; there was the same powerful central government; the same subordination of elections; the same deaf ear to the appeals of eighty-four enslaved provinces. The Executive had the appointment of every officer of government, from the penniless peer who legislated for a nation of paupers, down to the liveried postillion who fed the royal horses, or the ragged peasant who broke stones on the national highway. Louis the XVIII., though an able, energetic, and resolute prince, just in his administration, straightforward in his measures, and liberal in his policy, possessed no seat in the affections of the people; his throne had been erected upon the bayonets of powerful States, sworn to preserve the balance of power, and he had committed the unpardonable crime, in the eyes of the multitude, of ordering the effigies and statues of the great Napoleon to be removed from the public places, and of causing to be effaced every print that showed his noble brow. Louis, indeed, knew and felt that the current of national feeling was running strongly against him, and with all that excellent good sense which characterized his whole reign, he fortified himself behind the bulwark of the Constitution which he had given the people at his accession, and remained perfectly passive, without making a single stretch of prerogative to uphold the honor of the white flag that waved above him. He saw that the nation were paying an annual capitation tax of thirteen *per cent.*; he saw that thirty millions of artisans and agriculturists were reduced to a worse than political Helotism by several hundred thousand city bankers, lawyers, clerks, and government employees; he saw that the National Guard and a revolutionary press occupied thrones, the one on his right hand, the other on his left, but dared not lift the executive arm against any of these monstrous abuses, lest he should, thereby, destroy the well-adjusted balance of political evils, and precipitate the nation into all the horrors of a second Reign of Terror. He had, accordingly, to address the army, the press, and the mob, in language not unlike this—Gentlemen, we are all kings; you derive your authority from one source, I from another; your thrones are strong, gentlemen, and I respect them; your power is august, and I honor it; but, gentlemen, you are only kings of *France*; I am Louis, King of *Paris*, by the mass, gentlemen. Well did the Fourteenth Louis make the boast—"I am France;" but with a far greater approach to truth could the Eighteenth of that line declare himself to be Paris, and thereby show his superior power.

So great had become the centralization of power under the Restoration, that Paris not only became France, an *imperium in imperio*, but aimed to be, and attained its aim, what ancient France never aspired to be. Paris ruled in the nursery and drawing-room; Paris reigned in the school and university; Paris was omnipotent in the splendid ceremonial of private life, and regulated the finances of distant provinces; Paris prescribed patterns for the belles and beaux of the provincial towns, and deputed ministers to foreign courts; Paris nominated the police of little hamlets at the roots of Pyrennees, and seated Lafitte at the head of the Cabinet; Paris issued *lettres de cachet* against young Doctrinaires who shouted, "Vive St. Just," and erected ten Bastiles in the Faubourgs of the metropolis.

From the coronation of a king to the breaking of a stone on the national highway, the central government of the capital had the supreme control. Disaffection towards the government soon manifested itself in every quarter, and the Count de Artois only came to the throne to go through with the silent ceremonial of a royal pantomime, and to pave the way to the revolution of 1830, which brought double disgrace upon the nation by placing the sceptre in the hands of the poor citizen king, Louis Philippe, the weak and impotent. But the cycle of revolution had not completed its round in the destiny of France, and the government, begotten in convulsion, expired in convulsion. The cloud that had long been gathering suddenly burst, and on June the 23d, 1848, the streets of Paris were, for the third time, deluged in blood. Now was a third, a fourth, and perhaps a final opportunity offered the chivalrous sons of France to pull down and put up, to adjust and reconstruct the venerable edifice of their Constitution. But why does it still present to the eye of the beholder the same sombre, Gothic aspect, the same massy proportions, and dim, dark aisles that fed the superstition and admiration of the generation of Frenchmen who called the twelfth Louis, king? A complete answer to the interrogatory is furnished by the simple story which recites, that Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, late President of the *Republic* of France, now sits on the throne of the Caesars. Few persons occupy so splendid a place in history as those who have established monarchies on the ruins of republican institutions. To them are ascribed, with greater or less justice, all the essential prerequisites of greatness, and the possession of those high attributes which ever raise men above the ordinary level of their kind: but this distinction is only given to a few imperial spirits, to show, as it were, the capabilities of the individual man, and the high destinies of the race. Thinly, indeed, but luminously, they stand, scattered along the vistas of vanished ages, dating splendid epochs in the history of the race, and illustrating the genius of the respective periods of

which their lustre speaks. Over their narrative the historian pauses to dispel any illusion that may possess him, and to persuade himself that he is not losing sight of the actual, and entering on the high field of romance. Great events call forth great actors, indeed; but whether the quality of greatness resides in him who acts, or is more properly ascribable to the *causes* of action, is a mixed question of fact and supposition, which the reasoner is left to solve altogether by the nature of the evidence, as applied to each individual case, and its succession in the order of time. Cæsar was not great *because* Alexander was great; nor was the battle of Pharsalia decisive because the battle of the Ghranicus was so: for, although the truism, that human nature remains always the same, be uncontrovertible, it is still exhibited under so many multiplied and ever-varying phases, that what may be safely predicated of a series of characters, or a class of actions of one age, will be wholly inapplicable, by parity of reasoning, when brought to bear upon the spirit and affairs of another. Wellington did not conquer at Waterloo *because* he drew up his army in the order of battle adopted by Octavius at Actium; but because Grouchet failed to keep the division of the Prussian army, under Blücher, from effecting a nearer approach to the field of battle, and because his soldiers were differently armed from the pikemen and slingers of Augustus. So, in the comparison of the qualities of men and actions, and the features of separate historical events, they must, in order to be properly estimated, be viewed in the order of time, place, and circumstance. As a general thing, illustrious characters are the mere exponents of events, whose history, legitimately connected with the past by a regularly articulated chain of causes and effects, spans the rugged gaps of ages, and dates its origin, perhaps, from circumstance so trivial as a passionate whisper from the lips of beauty, or a silent thought in the brain of a melancholy recluse. The False Prophet kissed his beloved Cadijah, ascended into the seventh heaven astride his favorite Bokrah, returned to his silent cave, and crying, "Allah! Allah is the true God, and Mohammed is his prophet," drew a third of the Eastern hemisphere to his sepulchre, and now prepares to wage a fierce and bloody war with the proud Autocrat of the North.

Angelo did not build St. Peter's; Watt did not bridge the ocean; Montesquieu did not compose the "*Esprit des Lois*;" nor did Ignatius roll back the tide of Protestantism to its northern bed. Ideas are kings; men, subjects; principles rule; kings obey; truths speak; Gods adore. Louis Napoleon is the exponent of a single idea, the representative of a grand fundamental principle, the embodiment of a great political truth—Conservatism. Not that morbid conservatism which the complacency of

republics affects; not that conservatism which democracies shoot out the tongue at, and shout crucify, crucify; not that conservatism which despots worship, and tyrants prostitute: but that pure, healthy, high-toned conservatism which is founded upon the immutable essence of things, and acknowledges in the science of human affairs the existence of a primordial distinction between the idea of an essential political right and an essential political wrong. In this latter sense, the present Emperor of the French is a conservative, and in this sense, alone, is he to be considered *great*, even although by *greatness* be meant the power or faculty in individuals of accomplishing what others, or the generality of men, consider impossibilities; which fact, Louis Napoleon has, certainly, nobly illustrated. A son of France himself, born of high and noble fame, brought up under the shadow of her venerable institutions, rudely ejected from her bosom, exiled, proscribed, hunted down, manacled, imprisoned, degraded by her capricious authority, he viewed the long and varied story of his country, stretching back through centuries of high renown, with the penetrating glance of the philosopher, and the warm heart of the patriot, and read the thoughts of the national mind with a precision and power which his subsequent history alone can adequately relate. The uppermost thought which had been lost sight of, in the whirl of revolutions and wreck of systems, he seized, and displaying it fully before their eyes, the whole nation, with one united voice, shouted—"Eureka," "Eureka."

Louis Philippe, the unfortunate, had been long sensible of the fact, that the pillars of his throne were fast vanishing into air, and that he must either bring back the truant nation into the fold of the Constitution, or commence to act the spirited king, when, quick, loud, and scathing as a thunderbolt, fell the mushroom monarchy of 1830. With a trembling exile tread, barely escaped with life, the Royal Refugee planted foot on Dover's Cliffs, never to see ungrateful France again. The power of government, for a third time, devolved on the National *Legislature*. The Assembly proceeded, as in 1789, to the establishment of a Provisional Government, and, framing a Constitution on purely Republican principles, called upon the people to ratify it. But long, stormy, and bloody was the debate on that question. While the Deputies in Convention were, in the month of February, 1848, advocating the claims of the Duchess of Orleans, Lamartine, addressing the populace, was calling for a Provisional Government. In March, the National Assembly was ordered to be convoked by universal suffrage, to decree the Constitution. On the 23d of April, the representatives were chosen, and on the 4th of May, the Assembly of 900 members met, amid shouts of "Vive la Republique," and began to frame

the Constitution amidst an infuriated mob of workmen and artisans: they expelled the President from his chair, and anarchy, for a time, reigned supreme. The anarchists were put down, and the Assembly resumed their sittings. But the mob were not content; they had not yet seen blood spilt, and on the 28d of June, so fearful had their power become, that the Assembly ordered General Cavaignac to declare Paris in a state of siege, and to disperse the mob at the point of the bayonet. But this huge army of Red Republicans could not be intimidated by mere threats. Changarnier, at the head of the National Guards, and supported by Cavaignac, marched against the insurgents, and commenced a fierce attack upon the barricades, which was carried on from street to street, during three horrible days. The arms of the Assembly prevailed, and until Louis Napoleon was inaugurated President, the sword was the only authority known in Paris.

The cardinal political principles of the Constitution, decreed by the Assembly, were Democratical government, Universal suffrage, and the Sovereignty of the people. The first recognized authority was the National *Legislature*. On the 28th of October the election for President took place, and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte obtained 5,534,520 votes out of 7,426,252 persons who voted, Gen. Cavaignac having 1,448,302; Ledru Rollin, 371,431; Raspail, 36,964; Lamartine, 17,914; Changarnier, 4,687; *showing a clear majority of two million in favor of Napoleon.* Never was success so complete as this. The elder Napoleon himself, with fewer and weaker competitors, received not such a vote—and making allowance for increase of population, the vote is still larger. The statistics show that at the Consulate, for eight years, he obtained 3,012,569 votes; at the Consulate for life, 3,578,259; Hereditary Empire, 3,524,244.

How, then, in view of these facts, can it be said that the pride and chivalry of France have been humbled in the success of Napoleon? Or is it not properly this charge, but another and graver, that *he violated his oath to the Constitution*, which is preferred against him? He did not violate one article of that charter so long as his powers as Chief Executive of the Republic, and vested in him by that instrument, were not violated and attempted to be usurped by the other co-ordinate branch of the government, the National *Legislature*; and it was only to save himself, to preserve the Constitution, to deliver France from the misrule and anarchy of a turbulent Assembly of fierce Jacobins, that he took a firm and decided stand, and asserted the superior power and importance of the Executive over the Legislative Department of government, whenever, in the course of affairs, their separate powers are brought to conflict and contend for the mastery. The immediate cause of this violent rupture between these two branches of the sovereign power seems to have been,

that a celebrated orator of France, and at that time member of the Legislature, being arrested for debt, was condemned to be imprisoned by the judgment of the Court of Justices; the prisoner pleaded that his dignity as Deputy of the Chamber exempted him from arrest; that the order of the court was executed, and the Legislature then in session deeming it to be an indignity upon them, declared the judgment of the court null, and demanded the release of the prisoner. The President interposed, and held that the National Legislature had no authority to set aside the sentence of a court, sitting as a court of law on criminal cases. This was but the commencement of a fierce and bitter contest kept up between these two branches of the National Sovereignty. The President, finally discovering that the matter was reduced to the plain question of destruction to one or the other of the powers, prepared himself to meet with boldness the attacks of the Legislature, and to put down the bold encroachments of that body; and the only effectual and expedient method of accomplishing this resolve, was to make bare the executive arm, and preserve law and order at the sacrifice of the most dangerous, rapacious, and least conservative of all the divisions of the sovereign authority. By assuming this hostile and independent attitude, he subjected himself to all the chances of defeat and the keen blade of the assassin: he, accordingly, threw himself upon the nation, and arraying him on the side of law and order, drew himself up in all the collectedness of his might and power, resolving to live or die with France. In him Conservatism gained a signal triumph, and in the month of December, 1852, he showed her beauty to the world. Jacobinism received a deadly wound; Anarchy was condemned to swallow the hemlock she had in preparation for a nation of sufferers; the fierce spirits of Democracy were consigned to their abodes in Avernus; the stirring drama was concluded, and the curtain fell upon Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, nobly sustaining the character of *Prince President* of the Republic of France. Call it tyranny, call it the despot's rule, or what not, ye boasted advocates of a liberty which the very saints of Paradise themselves dare not claim of the Omnipotent; but forget not that *principle* is power; law is might; and that, to all systems, from the splendid gyrations of the planets down to the authority that rules the fireside of the humblest cottager, there must be *one* acknowledged, undivided power; *one* responsible, individual head; *one* efficient, authoritative, and controlling will. Sovereignty is a unit; it cannot be divided without the annihilation of its very essence: it must, in order to perform an act, have *adjuvants*, but this only in the sense and manner that the Deity made ministers of the elements in the formation of the worlds. Governments are trusts, indeed, and of high responsibility; but whether that responsibility be due to the *opinion* of the governed or to the *authority* of

the governing power, based upon *law*, and *constitutionally* expressed, is a question which Christendom is now fearfully putting to the test. The Emperor of the French has followed closely and strictly the course of events, and when, for a moment, he opened up a new channel for the foaming current of the national mind, it was not with a view to coerce or restrain, but to follow and direct. Cromwell dissolved the Long Parliament with the pikemen of the Covenant at his heels, and was not ashamed of the title of "King Oliver;" and, than his, when did England know a reign brighter and more prosperous? Napoleon the Great abolished the Council of Five Hundred, and ascended the throne by three successive steps; and when was the dominion of France, "above low-water mark," more splendid and respected? And now that the capable and spirited Octavius has won the confidence of the nation, seated him on the throne where the great Julius sat, and drank confusion to all her enemies, what may not be the destiny of France?

To compare Louis Napoleon to his illustrious uncle would betray the veriest stupidity; but it is by no means doubtful that he may not do great things for France, and bequeath his country a reign which will date a bright and memorable epoch in her annals. He may be aptly likened to the rippling woodland streamlet, meandering through peaceful meadows; his uncle, to the fierce mountain torrent, dashing, foaming, thundering, and bearing everything before it in its impetuous course. It was the destiny of the elder Bonaparte to be born in a remarkable age of remarkable men and stirring events: he was educated in a grand school, and grandeur became the quality of all his actions: he conquered, because to conquer was the fashion of the age; he grasped the sceptre and wore the crown because all men essayed to become kings; and he fell because he ceased to be conservative when conservatism was the order of the day. But viewed as a mere man, apart from any connection with the splendid part he performed in that most magnificent and imposing drama that has ever been produced on the theatre of the world, he is still that same mighty spirit that animated conquering armies, and made laws for vanquished Europe. Great in prosperity, he was not the less so when the dark hour of adversity came on; and now, after the lapse of more than a quarter of a century has placed its seal upon his tomb, Napoleon the Grand still controls the destiny of France. Events, great indeed, introduced him prominently upon the stage; but, with the power of a magician, he no less gave birth to mighty events. Louis Napoleon, the third of the line of Bonaparte, is strong where his great uncle was weak; he possesses judgment where, in the mental characteristics of his uncle, preponderated invention, combination, conception, order, volume, power; but the nephew is not deficient in that high spirit for military affairs,

which has been considered, with not the greatest justness, the grand distinguishing characteristic of the genius of the uncle, and which has assigned him a position rather among great soldiers than among great statesmen and civilians. Grandson of the virtuous, spirited, and unfortunate Josephine, son of the brilliant Hortense and capable Louis, nephew of him who never knew his equal, the present Emperor of the French boasts the highest blood that ever trickled through mortal veins.

He now occupies a commanding position before the world, and in these troublous times, when ancient landmarks are being upheaved, and all that is sacred and venerable is crumbling beneath the cankerous touch of a merciless innovation, what is to be the probable course he has marked out for himself, is highly problematical, and will perhaps be determined only by the current of coming events; but for the glory and integrity of France, it is to be hoped that he will fortify himself upon the high conservative ground he has already so nobly assumed, and leading back the errant nation to the Constitution of the ancient Empire, open up a high and brilliant career of honor, grandeur, and prosperity to a nation which has, for more than a half century, been given over to assassinations, bloodsheds, and devastating revolutions.

His policy is peace; his rule is conservatism; his ambition that of a spirited prince, who has performed great actions, and is solicitous of the welfare of his country. He may err in the execution of his plans, but the error will be of the head, not of the heart. He may be opposed by fierce conspirators, and those turbulent spirits who are laboring to destroy the repose of the nation, but he is strong in the confidence of the great body of the French people, and his security being the security of France, he will dispense with the sword, and establish his throne upon the strong foundation of the national voice. France, since it ran mad in 1789, has been a nursery of spoilt children, and whenever for a moment the voice of authority has been withdrawn, there commenced an universal tearing of faces and bruising of heads, till the rod reappeared, or the terror of the dark closet and the diet of bread and water restored tranquillity again; and if there be one thought predominant above another in the national mind, it is the idea of a strong central government, powerful enough to keep off foreign aggression, and to put down domestic factions, and sufficiently limited to throw an efficient safeguard around the life, liberty, and property of the citizen. This is the character of the government lately established by Louis Napoleon, and if it be administered in the spirit in which it has been conceived, there is no telling what may not be the height of power and importance to which the French, as a nation, may attain.

Art. VI.—GREAT CITIES OF THE WEST—ST. LOUIS.

No. I.

WE intend a series of papers upon the cities of the Great West, which will furnish full particulars of their extraordinary growth in all the elements of population, commerce, manufactures, and general industry, and begin with the city of St. Louis. Our next paper will be upon Cincinnati, and afterwards will follow New-Orleans, Louisville, Nashville, Memphis, Chicago, Pittsburg. The series will then include the greater and lesser cities of the Union, as they are included in the following tables. Many interesting tables will be framed of the value of real estate in the different cities, and its improvement from time to time; the extent and nature of taxation; the results traceable to railroads, &c., &c.

POPULATION OF THIRTY-TWO CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

		1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.		
Portland, Me.		3,677..	7,169..	8,581..	12,601..	15,218..	20,815..		
Portsmouth, N. H.	4,720	5,339..	6,934..	7,327..	8,082..	7,887..	9,738..		
Boston, Mass.	1722 } 10,567	18,038	24,937	33,250	43,298	61,392	93,383	136,861		
	1765 } 15,520						6,474	20,796	33,383	
Lowell, "					2,767	3,914	6,784	10,985	11,766
Springfield, "	1637 } 900	7,921..	9,457..	12,613..	12,731..	13,895..	15,082..	20,264..		
Salem, "	1765 } 4,427									
Providence, R. I.	6,380..	7,614..	10,071..	11,767..	16,832..	23,171..	41,513..		
New-Haven, Conn.		4,049..	5,772..	7,147..	10,180..	12,960..	20,345..		
Hartford, "			3,935..	4,726..	7,076..	9,468..	13,555..		
	1656 } 1,000									
New-York, N. Y.	1731 } 8,628	33,131	60,489	96,373	123,706	202,589	312,710	515,547		
	1773 } 21,876									
Brooklyn, "		3,298	4,402	7,175	15,396	36,233	66,836		
Albany, "		3,498	5,289	9,356	12,630	24,238	33,721	50,763	
Buffalo, "				1,508	2,095	8,653	18,213	42,261	
Rochester, "					1,502	9,269	20,191	36,403	
Troy, "	1812 } 15					3,895	5,264	11,405	19,334	28,785
Utica, "						2,972	8,323	12,782	17,565
Newark, N. J.						6,507	10,953	17,290	38,894
Philadelphia, Penn.	1663 } 600	42,520	69,403	91,874	112,772	161,410	220,423	340,045		
	1731 } 12,000									
Pittsburg, "		1,565	4,768	7,248	12,568	21,115	46,601		
Baltimore, Md.	13,503	26,114	35,583	62,738	80,625	102,313	169,054		
Washington, D. C.		3,240	8,208	13,247	18,827	33,364	40,001		
Richmond, Va.		3,761	5,737	9,735	12,067	16,060	20,153	27,570	
Charleston, S. C.	16,359	20,473	24,711	24,780	30,289	29,261	42,985		
Savannah, Ga.		5,166	5,215	7,523	7,776	11,214	15,312		
Mobile, Ala.	1785 } 746*					1,500	3,194	12,672	20,515	
	1788 } 1,468*									
Nashville, Ten.						5,566	6,929	10,478	
Louisville, Ky.	1788 } 30		359	1,357	4,012	10,341	31,210	43,194		
Cincinnati, O.		750	2,540	9,642	24,831	46,338	115,436		
St. Louis, Mo.	1769 } 891*				1,000	4,598	5,832	16,469	77,860	
	1785 } 897*									
	1788 } 1,197*									
	1769 } 3,190									
New-Orleans, La.	1785 } 4,980			17,242	27,176	46,310	102,193	116,375		
	1788 } 5,331									
	1797 } 5,056									
San Francisco, Cal.							† 34,776		
Milwaukee, Wis.	1846 } 9,655						1,700	20,061		

NOTE.—The periods earlier than 1790 are taken from State enumerations, and from other sources of information.

* Population of the settlement.

† State census of 1852.

POPULATION OF FIFTY-SIX OTHER CITIES AND TOWNS IN THE UNITED STATES
FOR 1840 AND 1850.

	1840.	1850.*		1840.	1850.
Augusta, Me.	5,314	8,325	Johnstown, New-York.	5,409	6,131
Bangor, "	8,637	14,432	Poughkeepsie, "	10,006	13,944
Bath, "	5,141	8,020	Schenectady, "	6,784	8,921
Gardiner, "	5,042	6,486	Syracuse, "	6,500	22,271
Thomaston, Me.	6,227	2,723	Newburg, "	6,000	11,415
Dover, N. H.	6,458	8,196	Lockport, "	6,500	12,323
Nashua, "	6,034	5,820	West Troy, "	5,000	7,564
Andover, Mass.	5,307	6,945	Whitestown, "	5,156	6,810
Cambridge, "	8,409	15,215	Kingston, "	5,824	10,332
Danvers, "	5,020	8,109	Paterson, N. J.	7,596	11,334
Fall River, "	6,728	11,524	Harrisburg, Penn.	5,966	7,834
Gloucester, "	6,350	7,786	Lancaster, "	8,417	12,969
Lynn, "	9,367	14,257	Reading, "	8,410	15,743
Marblehead, "	5,575	6,167	Wilmington, Del.	8,367	13,979
Middleboro', "	5,085	5,336	Frederickton, Md.	5,182	6,028
Nantucket, "	9,012	8,452	Georgetown, D. C.	7,312	8,366
Newburypt, "	7,161	9,572	Alexandria, Va.	8,459	8,734
Plymouth, "	5,281	6,094	Lynchburg, "	6,395	8,071
Roxbury, "	9,089	18,364	Portsmouth, "	6,477	8,122
Taunton, "	7,645	10,441	Wheeling, "	7,885	11,435
Worcester, "	7,497	17,049	Augusta, Ga.	6,403	11,723
Newport, R. I.	8,333	9,563	Memphis, Tenn.	—	8,839
Smithfield, "	9,534	11,500	Lexington, Ky.	6,097	9,180
New-London, Conn.	5,519	8,991	Cleveland, O.	6,071	17,034
Auburn, New-York	5,626	9,548	Columbus, "	6,048	17,892
Canandaigua, "	5,652	6,143	Dayton, "	6,067	10,977
Hudson, "	5,672	6,286	Detroit, Mich.	9,102	21,019
Rhaca, "	5,650	6,909	Indianapolis, Ia.	2,692	8,634

The particulars of our article upon St. Louis are incorporated from the History of St. Louis, Commercial and Statistical, which appeared in the form of an Annual Report in that valuable Journal, the *Missouri Republican*, on the 10th January, 1854, and was afterwards published in pamphlet form by the editors, Chambers & Knapp.

Great, doubtless, was the contrast between the St. Louis of twenty years since and the little French village which in 1804 was transferred to the American authorities; a town not then numbering a thousand souls, whose currency was deer-skins; a town which had only three short and narrow streets, whose outer boundary had just previously a line of pickets bounded by Fourth-street, and whose tenements were those "chinked and daubed" log-houses, with steep and heavy roofs, though not ill-planned to suit the climate, of which scarcely a relic is now left here. Greater still was the contrast between the two, if we go back to the time when Laclede, having with prescient eye selected this spot for the scene of his trading operations, felled the trees for the construction of the first human habitation ever raised here. But great as are these contrasts, they sink into insignificance compared with that between the St. Louis of twenty years since and the same city to-day.

In 1833, St. Louis had a population not much exceeding 6,000, and taxable property valued at only \$2,000,000. The whole tax of that year on personal and real property was only \$2,745 84, being perhaps a fifth or sixth part of the sum now paid, in several instances, by single individual citizens. The city has now over 100,000 inhabitants, and taxable property which, at a very low estimate, exceeds in value \$39,000,000, on which she has assessed this year a tax of \$420,000; while the whole receipts into the

* Population of township, since subdivided.
† Estimated population in 1852.

† Population in 1852.

City Treasury for the year ending in August, 1853, were one million one hundred and twenty-four thousand, four hundred and sixty-eight dollars. Her population is, therefore, now seventeen times, and her wealth nineteen times greater than it was in 1833; both having doubled themselves every five years since that time. Calculating upon the basis of this ratio of increase, the wealth of the city five years hence ought to be near *eighty millions*, and its population *two hundred thousand*; though one-half this increase would be enough to satisfy reasonable anticipations.

Annexed are tables showing the results of the census for the last few years:—

Population of St. Louis in 1820.....	4,123
“ “ “ 1830.....	6,694
“ “ “ 1840.....	16,649
“ “ “ 1850.....	74,439
“ “ “ 1852.....	94,000

The assessed value of real estate, as certified to by the assessors, for the following years, stands for—

1840.....	\$8,682,506 00
1842.....	12,101,018 00
1844.....	13,999,914 50
1846.....	15,055,720 99
1848.....	19,506,497 85
1850.....	29,676,649 24
1851.....	34,433,529 21
1852.....	38,281,668 96
1853.....	39,397,186 33

In 1833, the tonnage of boats belonging to St. Louis was not 2,000; it is now near 37,000. The fees for wharfage, not then \$600, are now \$60,000. Her imports, then nothing, are now \$917,000. The course of trade here, which showed a movement of goods and produce valued at not more than \$5,000,000, now brings to this point the materials of a commerce estimated at \$100,000,000. The statistics which show the increase in a vast variety of articles of traffic within brief intervals during the period referred to, are highly interesting. In 1849, the receipts of flour were 396,000 barrels; they were last year 737,000. From 1843 to 1851, the hemp arrivals, including manufactures of that article forwarded to this market, had increased from two thousand nine hundred to *fourteen* thousand tons. The movements in dry goods, groceries, and hardware show an increase equally gratifying. In 1841, the entire wholesale dry goods business was transacted by ten houses, several of which kept assorted stocks of other wares, and whose total sales did not reach \$1,300,000. In 1852, according to a careful estimate, these sales had increased to \$7,000,000. The hardware dealers, who, in 1842, employed a capital of only \$96,000, and made sales to an amount not over \$185,000; in 1851, had a capital of half a million, and sold more than a million. The imports of coffee, which, in 1846, were 65,000 bags, were in 1851, 102,000. The packages of sugar, which, in 1846, numbered not 17,000, had increased in 1851 to 66,000, and this year will run up to 105,000. Seven grocery houses, which, in 1845, sold goods to the amount of \$1,134,367, in 1853 made sales amounting to \$5,018,677. During this interval, the sales of three hardware establishments increased from \$251,259 to \$904,316. Meanwhile branches of business requiring hundreds of thousands of capital, and producing millions in value, have started into existence. Pork-packing, for example, first commenced here in 1846; and now the commerce in provisions passing through to this period, is estimated at \$5,000,000.

There had been built by the French a few store-houses, nearly all of which have disappeared, and 1814 had witnessed the erection of the first brick house, though fifteen years after, the number of such buildings was very small. Now it is needless to say that there are thousands of public and private edifices of brick and marble, many of which are distinguished for their magnitude and splendor; long lines of spacious and solid warehouses; elegant and commodious dwellings; fifty church edifices, presenting great variety of architecture; a magnificent court-house, costing over half a million of dollars; a university of learning; two large medical colleges; twelve school-houses; a noble hall erected by the Mercantile Library Association; three spacious theatres; ten market-houses; besides halls, hotels and other buildings, which it is impossible to particularize.

The city having been liberally endowed by Congress with a large amount of lands of great present, and still greater prospective value, has made handsome provision for the education of youth. To this vital interest our citizens are so much alive, that they have cheerfully taxed themselves to add to the income derived from the school lands. There are now twelve occupied school-houses in our city, many of them very substantial, elegant and commodious structures. In these are kept twenty-six schools, attended by four thousand children of both sexes. The value of the lands belonging to the schools is estimated at half a million of dollars; the productive portions of which yield a yearly income of fourteen thousand five hundred dollars. The amount raised for the maintenance of schools by taxation is \$28,000, making their entire income \$42,000. The general control of the schools is in the hands of a Board of Directors, chosen for the different Wards by popular election, and their immediate direction is committed to a superintendent. The corps of teachers is believed to be very efficient, and the character of the schools such as to entitle them to the entire confidence of our citizens. The school fund proper, looking at the certainty of a large increase in its amount, together with the avails of taxation, furnishes, and will continue to furnish, ample means for giving to the rising generations of St. Louis a thorough education. In addition to the public schools, are a great number of private institutions, many of which maintain a high character, and furnish as complete an education as can be acquired in any of the schools of the East.

The debt of the city is nominally two millions seven hundred thousand dollars. But a very large proportion of this debt, having been contracted for subscription to railroads, or in order to raise moneys with the reimbursement of which individuals who have been specially benefited by its expenditure are chargeable, should be deducted from the amount of the city's permanent debt. The value of the property owned by the city was stated by the Chairman of the Board of Assessors in 1850, at \$1,845,304. This property consists in part of lands in the "Common," a tract given to the inhabitants of St. Louis by the Spanish Government, and containing 4,000 acres, a portion of which has been sold by the city. Her present interest in the "Common" has been subject to a rigid investigation, the result of which shows a clear title in the city to over 600 acres, and a probable one to 600 acres more. Should the city, after the settlement of all questions in respect to title, find itself in possession of 1,000 acres, the value of its property in that amount of land, situated as this is, would not fall short of fifteen hundred thousand dollars. It might not, therefore, be unsafe to put a valuation of two millions five hundred thousand dollars upon the corporate property now owned by the city.

Heretofore, the commerce brought to her doors by river navigation has been the basis of her marvellous prosperity. This basis, broad as it has proved itself, is now enlarging. St. Louis is enlisting in her service the steam-car as well as the steam-boat. Her citizens have projected a system

of railroads, which will put her in communication with every part of Missouri; and which, by its connection with systems projected in the States adjoining Missouri, will open easy approaches to her from every section of the Union. Soon the Chicago and Mississippi Railroad will give her a connection with all the cities on the seaboard through the Lake lines; the Ohio and Mississippi will do the same for her through Cincinnati; and the Terre Haute and Illinois the same on a line between the two. A railroad to Belleville, continued to Murphysboro, will connect her with Mobile, New-Orleans, and the other points on the great trunk line between the Lakes and the Gulf, east of the Mississippi River.

West of the Mississippi, the North Missouri Railroad, touching the southern boundary of Iowa, will there connect with a line to be continued into Minnesota; and the Iron Mountain Railroad, touching the northern boundary of Arkansas, will there connect with one line reaching to New-Orleans on the one hand, and with another line reaching forward to El Paso, San Diego and San Francisco on the other. The North Missouri and Iron Mountain Roads will be parts of another great trunk road between the northern and southern extremities of the Union, west of the Mississippi. The North Missouri will cross the St. Joseph and Hannibal, and thus connect St. Louis with the north-western part of Missouri; although it is highly probable that a further and more direct connection between the two will be established within no distant period. Last, but not least, in the Missouri system, is the great Pacific Road, which proposes to connect St. Louis with Kansas, on the Missouri River, at the western frontier of the State, and to branch, in a south-westerly direction, towards the south-western angle of the State. Of this road, about forty miles are now finished, and in successful operation. The completion of these roads will develop a vast region of country rich in agriculture and mineral resources, the whole trade of which will be secured to St. Louis. One of them will, it is believed, be a link in the great chain which is to stretch from the Atlantic to the Pacific. We have no room now to dwell upon the momentous consequences to St. Louis of such a connection. We can only remark that our citizens will, it is believed, be true to themselves, and not, through their supineness or divisions, suffer this prize to be snatched from their hands by some other point, with perhaps far less pretensions on the score of position.

To the grounds now occupied by her steamboat and railroad enterprise, must be added the large field on which her manufacturing industry is entering.

The extensive system of railroads, planned and in execution from St. Louis, naturally leads to the inquiry, how far they will add to the manufacturing interest of the city, by making available the mineral and coal, so abundant in the State.

In about thirty-five miles, the Iron Mountain Railroad, to the south, penetrates the mineral region, where is found an abundance of lead, and in seventy-five to eighty miles, reaches the heart of the iron deposits at the Iron Mountain, Pilot Knob, Shephard Mountain, &c. The iron at the Iron Mountain alone has been estimated at 210,000,000 tons *above the surface*—at the Pilot Knob it is no less.

In the immediate neighborhood of St. Louis, (three to five miles on the west side of the Mississippi River, and six to ten miles on the east side,) is found an abundance of coal of fair quality. On the route of the Pacific Railroad to Kansas, is met near the Osage River, distant from St. Louis about one hundred and fifteen miles, a very superior cannel coal, in (comparatively) inexhaustible quantity. There is also indication of iron and copper. On the south-west branch of the Pacific Railroad, the lead and copper region is reached in about fifty-five miles, and, with iron, are to be found in large quantities for seventy miles.

With the junction of the Kansas and South-west Branch of the Pacific Railroad at Franklin, about thirty-seven miles from St. Louis, the lead, copper and iron are brought together with the cannel coal, by a total transportation of about one hundred and ten miles, viz.: thirty miles for iron, and eighty miles for coal.

On the North Missouri Railroad, the coal fields of the country are passed over, and will undoubtedly show the same cannel coal now found on and near the Osage River.

A careful examination shows, that within one hundred to one hundred and twenty-five miles of St. Louis, is found an abundant supply for the markets of the world of iron, coal, lead and copper. In addition, may be mentioned kaolin, nickel, cobalt, manganese, &c., &c. Within the same circle is embraced a large proportion of agricultural land, especially known for the production of tobacco and grain. An abundance of timber is to be found—oak and yellow pine at the Maramec and Gasconade.

Beyond this circle of one hundred and twenty-five miles, the railroads now in progress to the east, northeast, west, northwest and southwest, pass through rich and fertile prairies, with abundance of timber, showing to the eye a certain return in agricultural products, and to the more observant judgment, other elements of wealth. In the extreme southwest part of this State is now found, on the Southwest Branch Railroad, abundance of lead and coal, and abundant water power. Of the route to the south, beyond the Iron Mountain, not so much is definitely known, but late surveys show much of value for local business, in addition to its importance as a means of transportation north and south, west of the Mississippi, concentrating all routes east and west.

To what we have so often said of the mineral wealth of the region of which St. Louis is the centre, we can now add only, that there is now every indication that this wealth will be developed; and that Missouri will be, not long hence, as much distinguished for her furnaces, forges and foundries, as she now is for her farms and steamboats. In our own city, though manufactures have not assumed that relative importance which they have attained in some of our sister cities, there are some manufacturing establishments which rank second to none in the Union. Of these, we have obtained some statistics, which we publish, in the belief that they will both interest and surprise those who have regarded St. Louis as a purely commercial city.

In nothing has the advance of the city been exhibited in a stronger light, than in the changes in the value of real property, within or near it. Lands which, not *fifteen* years ago, were sold at prices then deemed fair, but not higher than *fifty* dollars an acre, now readily bring *five thousand*. Rises so astonishing, and so well sustained, have no parallels, at least out of California. That they are so well sustained, with a continual upward tendency, now as strong as ever, is one among many proofs of how solid are the foundations on which rests the prosperity of our city.

Meanwhile, numerous improved communications with the country adjoining St. Louis have been opened. Ten macadamized or plank roads, besides other roads, furnish easy access to different parts of the country; and the neighborhood of the city, abounding as it does in spots remarkable for their rare natural beauty, and affording charming sites for rural residences, is being fast embellished with cottages, villas, and ornamented pleasure grounds, the evidences of wealth, luxury and taste.

Here stands a city, enjoying far beyond any other city of the same magnitude or pretensions, the advantages of that inland navigation, compared with which even our vast foreign commerce is sinking into insignificance. It has five thousand miles of that navigation belonging peculiarly to its own waters, with ten thousand miles of coast, yielding up the products of an

immense and fertile region, for which it furnishes a thousand outlets. To these may be added the forty thousand miles more of navigable rivers, which connect with St. Louis. Soon the vast means of communication furnished in this way to our city, will be enlarged by the completion of twelve hundred miles of railroad already begun or projected within the borders of the State, and connected with a net-work of similar roads stretching to every point of the Union; in one direction to the Gulf of Mexico, in another to the head waters of the Mississippi, and in a third to Labrador in the far east, and to San Francisco in the far west. Through her gates will pour the commerce of the Pacific, of India, and of the isles of the ocean on the one hand, and the commerce of the Atlantic and of Europe on the other. Stripping from her all which may be considered as accidental or adventitious—all of which jealous and more fortunate rivals may by possibility deprive her—still she is left the commercial centre, the natural mart of 700,000 square miles of territory, full of mineral and agricultural resources, and capable of sustaining in vigorous life a population of a hundred millions. What bounds, then, shall be assigned to the growth of St. Louis, when all the capacities of that country, whose trade can in no event be diverted from her, shall have been fully developed? When, in addition to the surplus products of that territory of which she must be the entrepot, she shall become, as she may, the great distributing agent for the West and for the East? In a word, the commercial emporium of the United States. What shall forbid an accumulation here of inhabitants, beyond anything of which we have authentic records? Millions upon millions, until there shall have sprung up here a city containing hundreds of square miles, with an area even then affording but reasonable accommodations for the vast multitudes collected within it. A city with quays and warehouses, stretching interminably in lines, which, still unbroken, fade out of sight in the dim distance. Of course, such visions relate to the future; but that future, midst the growth of such a nation as ours, cannot be long postponed. Meanwhile, the present generation will witness a progress with which it may well be content. That progress, it is true, will depend much upon the enterprise and energies of our citizens. We are fully aware of this truth, while we repeat the expressions of our confidence in that progress. For we fully rely on it, that its citizens will be true to their city and themselves: alike the thousands who are now here, and the hundreds of thousands still to come hither. That may be no idle dream which conceives for St. Louis the most exalted destiny; which, with a just prophetic forecast, transforms the humble hamlet of Laclede into the future Metropolis of the New World.

To show the business of the year, we compare the receipts of some of the leading articles, and give the increase and decrease, as follows:—

	1852.	1853.	Increase.	Decrease.
Tobacco, hhds.....	14,953.....	10,102.....	3,951	
“ boxes.....	12,386.....	10,528.....	1,858	
Hemp, bales.....	49,122.....	63,350.....	14,228	
Lead, pigs.....	409,314.....	442,218.....	32,904.....	
Flour, bbls.....	131,333.....	200,203.....	68,870.....	
Wheat, bushels.....	1,591,886.....	2,077,427.....	485,541.....	
Corn, sacks.....	344,720.....	459,192.....	114,472.....	
Oats, sacks.....	323,081.....	464,062.....	140,981.....	
Barley & Malt, sks.....	47,264.....	62,885.....	15,621.....	
Pork, bbls. and trs.....	66,306.....	78,354.....	12,048.....	
Lard, “ “.....	42,515.....	35,168.....	7,347.....	
Lard, kgs., cns., &c.....	11,815.....	16,889.....	5,074.....	
Whisky, bbls.....	46,446.....	51,207.....	4,761.....	
Hides.....	97,148.....	101,440.....	4,292.....	
Bagging, pieces.....	3,650.....	2,326.....	1,324.....	
Bale Rope, coils.....	42,121.....	58,437.....	16,316.....	

In the article of flour, we do not embrace, in the above table, the increased amounts from country and city mills, the former of which came in wagons. The difference will probably sum up \$500,000. Hemp, with the enhanced prices, will show an equal gain, and wheat more. Taking the business generally of the produce and grocery markets, the excess of the year just closed over the transactions of the last, will range between three and five millions of dollars.

TABLE OF MONTHLY RECEIPTS

At the Port of St. Louis, for the year 1853, showing the amounts from each river separately, and the grand total of each article. In this compilation, the Upper and Lower Mississippi are embraced under one head, as are also the Ohio and its tributaries.

ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.	ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.
Ale, bbls.	Ohio.....	9,985		Cornmeal, pkgs.	Ills.....	199	
	Miss.....	149	10,134		Miss.....	748	947
Barley, sks.	Ills.....	2,572		Cot. Yarn, bags	Mo.....	20	
	Mo.....	226			Ohio.....	8,500	
	Ohio.....	6,221			Miss.....	161	8,681
	Miss.....	53,061	62,080	Candles, bxs.	Ills.....	70	
Beans, pkgs.	Ills.....	760			Mo.....	50	
	Mo.....	692			Ohio.....	2,475	
	Ohio.....	3,831			Miss.....	110	2,785
	Miss.....	4,285	9,768	Cigars, bxs.	Ills.....	38	
Bran, sks.	Ills.....	6,601			Mo.....	189	
	Mo.....	2,624			Ohio.....	32	
	Miss.....	23,641	38,156		Miss.....	372	623
Brooms, doz.	Ills.....	17,151		Crackers, bbls.	Miss.....	—	
	Mo.....	25			Ohio.....	12	12
	Ohio.....	1,285		Corn Mills.	Miss.....	784	796
	Miss.....	1,609	20,063	Chains, doz.	Ills.....	—	
Butter, pkgs.	Ills.....	2,622			Ohio.....	—	
	Mo.....	1,265			Miss.....	—	
	Ohio.....	1,483		Clocks, bxs.	Ohio.....	—	
	Miss.....	3,954	9,324		Miss.....	—	
Bark, Tan, sks.	Ohio.....	—	5,276	Castings, pcs.	Ills.....	—	
tons.	Ohio.....	—	12		Ohio.....	—	
Batting, bales.	Ills.....	210			Miss.....	—	
	Mo.....	140		Demijohns.	Ohio.....	465	
	Ohio.....	3,651			Miss.....	2,377	2,842
	Miss.....	1,508	5,509	Eggs, pkgs.	Ills.....	307	
Bagging, rolls.	Ills.....	598			Mo.....	1,431	
	Mo.....	1,213			Ohio.....	56	
	Miss.....	515	2,326		Miss.....	1,020	2,614
Beef, bbls.	Ills.....	755		Flour, bbls.	Ills.....	45,131	
	Mo.....	212			Mo.....	9,264	
	Miss.....	4,546	5,514		Ohio.....	2,090	
Buffalo Robes,	Miss.....	3,604			Miss.....	143,718	200,203
pcs.	Mo.....	—	9,193	sks.	Mo.....	798	
	Miss.....	389	1,731	sks.	Ohio.....	36	
Burr Stones.	Miss.....	1,731	1,624		Miss.....	2,559	3,393
Baskets, nests	Miss.....	—	1,018	Fruit, dried, sks	Ills.....	268	
Corn, sks.	Ills.....	188,612			Mo.....	6,287	
	Mo.....	31,378			Ohio.....	10,308	
	Miss.....	264,001	439,192		Miss.....	9,286	26,140
Cheese, bxs.	Ills.....	93		bbls.	Ills.....	612	
	Mo.....	8			Mo.....	4,497	
	Ohio.....	26,106			Ohio.....	605	
	Miss.....	1,039	27,145		Miss.....	5,436	11,350
Cotton, bales.	Ohio.....	303		Feathers, pkgs.	Ills.....	2	
	Miss.....	610	1,013		Mo.....	588	
Cooperage, pcs.	Ills.....	34,296			Ohio.....	54	
	Mo.....	16,140			Miss.....	625	1,269
	Ohio.....	2,915		Fish, pkgs.	Ills.....	554	
	Miss.....	44,790	98,141		Ohio.....	1,275	
Cattle, head	Ills.....	397			Miss.....	6,645	8,474
	Mo.....	1,466		Furniture, pkgs.	Ohio.....	—	
	Ohio.....	121			Miss.....	—	
	Miss.....	1,187	3,171	Grease, pkgs.	Ills.....	263	
Coffee, sks.	Miss.....	—	104,467		Mo.....	157	
Coal, casks.	Ills.....	157			Miss.....	826	1,249
	Ohio.....	367		Glass, bxs.	Ills.....	89	
	Miss.....	1,787	2,311		Ohio.....	20,876	
Cement, bbls.	Ills.....	3,134			Miss.....	304	21,260
	Ohio.....	2,396		Grindstones.	Ohio.....	3,749	
	Miss.....	1,490	7,020		Miss.....	80	3,82

TABLE OF MONTHLY RECEIPTS, ETC.

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Table of Monthly Receipts, (continued.)

ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.	ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.
Gunnies, bls. & bdis. Ohio.	2,377			Meats, pkgs. Ills.	7,378		
Miss.	10,477	12,854		Mo.	3,610		
Gunpowder. Ills.	3,718			Miss.	9,292	20,280	
Miss.	7,302	11,020		pieces. Mo.	6,284		
Hides. Ills.	16,430			Miss.	1,495	7,779	
Mo.	28,778			bulk. Ills.	161,900		
Ohio.	506			Mo.	93,595		
Miss.	55,736	101,440		Miss.	239,791	495,266	
Hay, bales. Ills.	7,069			tiercos. Mo.	225		
Miss.	15,176	22,245		Miss.	63	288	
Hogs. Ills.	2,679			Molasses, bbls. Miss.	—	53,554	
Mo.	4,350			Marble, pkgs. Ills.	247		
Miss.	13,406	20,435		Ohio.	168		
Hops, bales. Ills.	132			Miss.	3,545	3,960	
Mo.	55			Moss, bales. Ohio.	29		
Ohio.	924			Miss.	692	731	
Miss.	73	1,184		Malt, pkgs. Ohio.	430		
Hair, pkgs. Ills.	837			Miss.	375	805	
Mo.	90			Marble Dust, bbls. Ohio.	75		
Ohio.	3,268			Miss.	130	205	
Miss.	565	4,760		Nails, kegs. Ohio.	53,092		
Hemp, bales. Mo.	59,623			Miss.	15,875	68,967	
Ills.	238			Oats, sacks. Ills.	121,939		
Miss.	3,489	63,350		Mo.	3,910		
Horses. Ills.	214			Ohio.	93		
Mo.	231			Miss.	338,120	464,062	
Ohio.	155			Onions, sks. Ills.	1,577		
Miss.	573	1,173		Mo.	22		
Honey, pkgs. Ills.	210			Ohio.	30		
Mo.	65			Miss.	25,378	27,007	
Miss.	27	302		Oysters, pgs. Ills.	1,018		
Iron, bdis. Ohio.	—			Ohio.	2,272		
Miss.	—			Miss.	3,001	6,391	
pieces. Ohio.	—			Oil, pkgs. Ills.	183		
bars. Ohio.	—			Ohio.	1,567		
Miss.	—			Miss.	1,130	2,689	
pkgs. Mo.	—			Oakum, bales. Mo.	—	506	
Ohio.	—			Pork, bbls. Ills.	34,025		
bar, tons. Ohio.	—			Mo.	3,129		
pig. Mo.	—			Miss.	32,365	71,519	
Ohio.	—			bbls., cks. & tes. Ills.	3,919		
Miss.	—			Mo.	39		
pes. Mo.	—			Miss.	327	4,285	
Ohio.	—			Pork & Lard, bbls. Ills.	675		
Miss.	—			Mo.	57	732	
bloom, ps. Mo.	—			bbls. and tes. Ills.	405		
tons. Miss.	—			Mo.	280		
Lard, tes. Ills.	5,839			Miss.	1,390	2,184	
Mo.	1,333			Poultry, Coops. Ills.	205		
Miss.	4,188	11,560		Mo.	250		
bbls. Ills.	5,576			Miss.	216	771	
Mo.	2,514			Paper, bdis. Ohio.	68,168		
kegs. Ills.	13,132	23,242		Miss.	501	68,969	
Mo.	1,945			Potatoes, pkgs. Ills.	11,103		
Miss.	6,501	13,051		Mo.	675		
cans, &c. Ills.	2,148			Ohio.	1,409		
Mo.	978			Miss.	59,037	72,224	
Miss.	712	3,838		Ploughs. Ills.	1,104		
Leather, rolls. Ills.	721			Mo.	109		
Mo.	45			Ohio.	42		
Ohio.	12,079			Miss.	1,032	2,287	
Miss.	1,821	14,666		Plaster. Ohio.	34		
Liquors, pkgs. Ills.	34			Miss.	1,218	1,252	
Mo.	28			Pipes, boxes. Ills.	55		
Ohio.	3,351			Miss.	950	1,005	
Miss.	6,535	9,948		Rags, sacks. Ills.	2,420		
Lead, pigs. Mo.	5,315			Mo.	717		
Miss.	436,903	442,218		Ohio.	10		
Lime, bbls. Ohio.	194			Miss.	1,320	4,467	
Miss.	8,124	8,318		Rye, sacks. Ills.	797		
				Mo.	120		
				Ohio.	42		
				Miss.	13,788	14,747	

Table of Monthly Receipts, (continued.)

ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.	ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.
Rope, coils.....	Ills....	32		Tobacco, boxes....	Mo....	5,006	
	Mo....	53,029			Ohio....	2,063	
	Ohio....	223			Miss....	3,279	10,528
	Miss....	5,154	58,437	bs., &c.....	Ills....	55	
Rice, tierces.....	Miss....	—	2,502		Ohio....	197	
Rosin & Pitch, bbls.	Miss....	—	5,080		Miss....	718	970
Raisins, bxs.....	Miss....	—	10,149	Tin, bxs.....	Ohio....	19	
Saddle-Trees.....	Mo....	914			Miss....	12,093	12,112
	Ohio....	177	1,091	Turpentine, bbls.	Miss....	—	1,262
Seed, pks.....	Ills....	2,865		Tar, bbls.....	Miss....	—	6,950
	Mo....	1,981		Twine, sks.....	Ills....	79	
	Ohio....	1,108			Mo....	8	
	Miss....	13,434	21,388		Ohio....	26	
Shorts, sks.....	Ills....	2,243		Tow, bales.....	Miss....	14	137
	Miss....	2,182	4,425		Ills....	141	
Skins, &c., bbls.	Ills....	444			Mo....	271	412
	Mo....	5,007		Wheat, sks.....	Ills....	455,612	
	Ohio....	245			Mo....	104,817	
	Miss....	3,716	4,112		Ohio....	10,238	
Starch, bxs.....	Ohio....	4,093			Miss....	438,768	1,009,435
	Miss....	42	4,135	bbls.....	Ills....	13,412	
Soap, bxs.....	Ohio....	6,189			Mo....	529	
	Miss....	1,582	7,771		Ohio....	1,187	
Sugar, hhds.....	Miss....	—	50,774	Whisky, bbls....	Miss....	2,139	17,267
	bbls.....	Miss....	13,973		Ills....	20,335	
	bxs. and bags.	Miss....	40,357		Mo....	291	
Syrup, bbls.....	Miss....	—	865		Ohio....	2,127	
Salt, sacks.....	Miss....	—	203,969	Wool, sacks.....	Miss....	27,117	49,870
	bbls.....	Ohio....	69,532		Ills....	103	
Soda Ash, pks.....	Miss....	—	1,085		Mo....	1,212	
Sand, bbls.....	Ohio....	94			Miss....	637	2,152
	Miss....	485	579	Wine, pks.....	Ills....	99	
Saleratus, pks....	Ills....	1,333			Ohio....	745	
	Ohio....	60			Miss....	11,079	11,923
	Miss....	947	2,240	Wax, packages....	Ills....	9	
Sheep.....	Ills....	145			Mo....	268	
	Mo....	1,053			Ohio....	11	
	Ohio....	114			Miss....	159	447
	Miss....	2,012	3,324	Woodware, &c. dz.	Ills....	—	
Tallow, pks.....	Ills....	357			Ohio....	—	
	Mo....	277			Miss....	—	
	Ohio....	237		buckets.....	Ohio....	—	
	Miss....	523	1,384		Miss....	—	
Tobacco, hhds.....	Ills....	5		tuba, nests....	Ohio....	—	
	Mo....	8,078			Miss....	—	
	Ohio....	47		pails, doz.....	Miss....	—	
	Miss....	1,972	10,102	kegs, nests....	Ohio....	—	
boxes.....	Ills....	180		Walnut Blocks....	Mo....	—	

RECEIPTS PER PACIFIC RAILROAD.

Tobacco.....	48 hhds. and 3 boxes	Whisky.....	214 barrels.
Lard.....	1,556 pigs	Wood.....	370 cords.
Iron.....	88,350 lbs. pig, 330 blooms.	Wine.....	9 casks, 7 bbls. and 8 boxes, native.
Wheat.....	3,418 bushels.	Hub-Stuff.....	25 cords.
Hides.....	5,200 pounds.	Hoop Poles.....	570,000

The above, with the exception of Tobacco, are not enumerated in the general statistics.

HMR.—The increase of receipts over last year, in this important staple, foot up about 14,324 bales, making an aggregate of 63,450, against 49,124 for 1852. When to this is added the enhanced rates at which the article ruled, (a considerable portion of the crop bringing as high as 20 per cent. advance on the sales of the previous season) a money balance in favor of the present year may safely be estimated at from \$200,000 to \$300,000. The following table shows the comparative prices of 1852 and 1853:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January.....	\$75 to \$92.....	\$90 to \$108	July.....	\$72 to \$85.....	\$95 to \$120
February.....	75 to 90.....	100 to 116	August.....	68 to 87.....	100 to 119
March.....	60 to 85.....	95 to 112	September.....	83 to 91.....	105 to 122
April.....	60 to 75.....	85 to 103	October.....	86 to 100.....	110 to 127
May.....	62 to 78.....	92 to 112	November.....	92 to 100.....	105 to 120
June.....	72 to 82.....	80 to 105	December.....	88 to 107.....	110 to 130

Taking the lowest and highest figure of each year, it will be found that the advance for 1853 is considerably over 20 per cent.; but as this method of computing relative values may not hold

good, especially under the circumstances of the present case, we give the above sum, which, embracing as it does the increase in the receipts, estimated at \$120 per ton, will hardly be considered over the mark—say three hundred thousand dollars.

BALE ROPE AND BAGGING.—In addition to the increase in the receipts of hemp this season, as compared with last, and the enhanced prices of the article, making a money difference in the operations of the two years, of a quarter of a million and more, as already mentioned, the item of bale rope comes in to swell the amount to a still greater extent. Receipts this year foot up 58,437 coils, against 41,674 last, showing a difference of 16,763 coils. This difference, at the ruling market rates, gives the sum of \$17,000, and when to this is added the advance on the whole receipts over the prices of the preceding year, a cash increase on operations, sums up \$60,000. Sales during the year were unusually large. Many Southern orders heretofore sent to the Ohio River, were filled at this point—our market offering equal inducement as far as quality is concerned, and superior claim to the consideration of buyers as regards cheaper transportation. Sales ranged from 6 to 6½, the larger portion at 6½ to 6¾; last year 4¾ to 5¾ were the ruling rates. The heavy advance in hemp, of course, led to this result. As well as we can ascertain, the quantity manufactured in St. Louis amounts to from 14,000 to 15,000 coils—of this the Lowell Factory, in the northern part of the city, turned out 11,000, the greater part of which found sale in this market. Missouri rope regained its standard the past season for excellence of quality, and was eagerly sought by Southern buyers. Our manufacturers have certainly equal opportunities to compete successfully with others, and superior advantages in the procurement of the raw material. The demand for Missouri hemp on the Ohio River is yearly becoming greater, owing to the heavy establishments in operation there, and still increasing, in this line of business, as well as in that of hocking hemp for the Northern markets; and if these can bear an extra charge of transportation, there is nothing to prevent entire success in this State.

TOBACCO.—Receipts this year show an aggregate of 10,198 hhds., less by 3,855 than those of 1852. Sales at the warehouses (Planters' and State) stand thus: Planters', 3,451; State, 1,895—less than last year, 2,741. The following table exhibits the operations at the two houses for eight years past:—

	Planters'. State Warehouse.		Planters'. State Warehouse.
1846.....	2,573..... 971	1850.....	4,169..... 62
1847.....	3,854..... 1,235	1851.....	4,193..... 796
1848.....	3,184..... 1,083	1852.....	5,776..... 2,311
1849.....	4,982..... 867	1853.....	3,451..... 1,895

This staple alone, we believe, of all the agricultural products of the country, shows an important deficit. The cause is to be traced to the limited attention it received from the regular as well as irregular planters. Other articles, at the time of planting, bore more remunerative prices, and to such the labor of the farmer was principally directed.

We believe, however, that the sales at the warehouses in this city for the year just closed, realized nearly, if not quite as much money as these of 1852. With the deficit given, and the range of prices for the season as shown in the following statement, the cash receipts, relatively, may be understood with sufficient certainty:—

	RANGE OF PRICES FOR 1853.			
	Lugs.	Seconds.	Fair to fine shipping.	Manufacturing.
January.....	\$3 00 to \$4 00	\$4 00 to \$4 50	\$4 75 to \$5 50	\$8 00 to \$10 00
February.....	3 60 to 3 85	none.	none.	none.
March.....	3 50 to 4 00	4 25 to 4 80	none.	5 55 to 6 00
April.....	3 50 to 4 75	4 60 to 5 50	5 75 to 6 50	6 00 to 10 00
May.....	4 25 to 5 12	5 00 to 5 60	5 75 to 7 00	6 00 to 11 50
June.....	5 75 to 4 75	4 80 to 5 25	5 50 to 6 75	6 00 to 13 00
July.....	4 50 to 5 00	5 00 to 6 00	6 00 to 8 50	6 50 to 16 00
August.....	4 75 to 5 60	5 50 to 6 50	6 25 to 8 25	7 00 to 15 00
September.....	4 75 to 5 65	5 50 to 6 50	6 50 to 8 00	none.
October.....	5 00 to 5 75	5 75 to 6 75	7 00 to 8 50	none.
November.....	4 65 to 5 50	none.	none.	none.

LEAD.—The following statistics have been furnished by a gentleman of Galena, who is intimately acquainted with this branch of business. They embrace the amounts produced for twelve years past—from 1842 to 1853 inclusive—together with the entire shipments per river and lakes:—

STATISTICS OF THE LEAD TRADE OF THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI.					
YEAR.	Pigs produced.	Equal to pounds.	Price 1,000 lbs. Mineral.	Price 100 lbs. Lead.	Value at Galena.
1842.....	447,909	31,353,630	\$12 85	\$2 24	\$702,321 31
1843.....	550,201	39,148,270	12 60	2 34	916,069 51
1844.....	624,672	43,727,040	16 88	2 80	1,224,357 12
1845.....	778,498	54,494,860	17 67	2 96	1,613,047 88
1846.....	733,403	51,268,210	17 33	2 89	1,481,651 36
1847.....	772,656	54,085,920	19 16	3 17	1,714,523 68
1848.....	681,909	47,737,830	19 82	3 24	1,546,705 69
1849.....	628,934	44,025,360	22 18	3 67	1,615,731 44
1850.....	568,589	39,801,230	24 10	4 20	1,671,651 66
1851.....	474,115	33,188,050	25 51	4 08	1,354,062 44
1852.....	408,628	28,603,960	25 87	4 12	1,178,483 05
1853.....	425,814	29,806,980	34 41	5 50	1,639,383 90
Total.....	7,103,446	497,241,360			\$10,657,988 94

Shipments of Lead from the Upper Mines, during the season of 1853, from March 21st to Dec. 1st.

Shipped via the river.	Pigs.	Pounds.	Value.
From Galena.....	318,543	22,298,010	\$1,226,340 55
Dubuque.....	43,832	3,069,640	168,830 20
Potosi.....	23 086	1,616,020	88,881 10
Cassville.....	14,186	993,020	54,616 10
Buena Vista.....	2,676	187,320	10,352 60
Shipped via the lakes.....	23,471	1,642,970	90,363 35
Totals.....	423,814	29,806,930	\$1,639,383 90

The receipts at this port, as given in our general table, aggregate 441,889 pigs this, against 409,314 last year. Of this, 5,315 came from the Missouri, and the balance from the Upper and Lower Mississippi. The Galena table gives the quantity shipped per river at 402,943—deduct from this the Missouri receipts, and the balance, it is fair to suppose, came from the lower mines—say 34,231 pigs.

FLOUR.—Transactions in flour, as per table, will be found far in advance of those of last year—say 68,570 bbls., to which must be added 3,393 sks., equal to 1,700 bbls.—making the difference between the two years 70,570 bbls. Total aggregate of receipts, per river, 200,293 bbls., and 3,393 sks., last year 131,333 bbls. Of these receipts, 45,131 bbls. came from the Illinois River, 9,264 do. and 798 sks. from the Missouri, 2,090 do. and 36 sks. by Ohio boats, 143,718 do. and 2,530 sks. from the Mississippi. Scarcity of coopers during a portion of the season, compelled shipments to be made in bags. So much for the river. Below will be found a comparative statement of the manufacture of flour by our city mills for three years past:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.		1851.	1852.	1853.
Nonantum.....	19,518	6,000	—	Planters'.....	38,200	29,810	48,881
Atlantic.....	27,263	41,284	49,300	Chouteau.....	9,700	2,100	—
Phoenix.....	5,284	6,560	7,500	Park.....	22,000	23,323	26,695
O'Fallon.....	12,356	16,943	18,700	Washington.....	13,500	15,000	—
Pacific.....	39,760	10,000	15,600	Franklin.....	12,160	16,000	24,500
Magnolia.....	16,300	—	—	Union.....	23,909	33,000	39,500
Eagle.....	31,700	28,564	30,750	Missouri.....	4,873	31,200	42,000
Saxony.....	16,700	10,600	12,500	Cherry-st.....	9,000	800	21,000
Empire.....	35,043	5,000	33,350	United States.....	46,000	59,000	55,000
Star.....	14,833	38,000	19,800				
			Total.....		408,099	383,184	457,076

Receipts per wagons, as far as ascertained, aggregate 80,220 barrels, swelling the total brought to and manufactured in St. Louis for 1853, to 737,500. This, as before observed, is largely in advance of last year's operations—the amount nearly reaches the trade of 1848.

The range for the year just closed, (1853) compiled from our semi-weekly reviews, predicated on actual sales, is as follows:—

	City superfine.	Country superfine.	City extra.	Country extra.
January.....	\$4 62½ to \$4 80\$4 35 to \$4 75\$5 00 to —\$4 75 to \$5 60
February.....	4 10 to 4 37½4 00 to 4 25— to —4 75 to 5 00
March.....	3 80 to 4 003 55 to 4 004 75 to —4 25 to 4 75
April.....	3 80 to 4 003 75 to 4 004 75 to 5 004 25 to 4 50
May.....	3 85 to 4 253 75 to 4 154 75 to 5 004 37½ to 4 75
June.....	3 00 to 4 12½3 75 to 4 104 50 to 5 254 25 to 4 50
July.....	4 25 to 5 004 00 to 4 704 75 to 5 254 50 to 5 00
August.....	4 50 to 5 254 25 to 5 005 50 to 5 754 50 to 5 12½
September.....	— to —4 15 to 4 75— to —4 75 to 5 25
October.....	5 50 to 6 005 00 to 5 806 00 to 6 505 50 to 6 12½
November.....	5 75 to 6 005 50 to 5 756 25 to 6 505 75 to 6 00
December.....	5 50 to 6 005 25 to 6 006 00 to 6 505 75 to 6 22

WHEAT.—Good crops and a heavy demand have this year brought forward a much larger amount than last year's statistics show—the increase approaches half a million of bushels. Total amount of receipts per river foot up 1,007,467 sacks, and 17,267 barrels. Estimating a sack at 2, and a barrel at 3½ bushels, the result is 2,072,491 bushels. Last year's receipts, 1,663,422—difference 409,069. The Illinois River sent out this season 455,375 sacks and 13,412 barrels, the Missouri 104,917 sacks and 529 barrels, the Mississippi 436,937 sacks and 2,139 bbls. Ohio River boats brought (from the Wabash, we presume, principally) 10,239 sks. and 1,187 bbls. In 1847 and 1848 receipts were 2,432,377 and 2,194,789 bushels respectively. Since then, until arrested this year, trade in this grain has shown a falling off. We give the statement, commencing with 1846:—

1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
1,538,925	2,432,377	2,194,786	1,792,535	1,900,088	1,700,708	1,663,422	2,008,893

CORN.—Our table of receipts shows an increase this year over last of 114,472 sacks. The total amount is 459,192 sacks, against 344,720 for 1852. Of this, the Illinois River furnished 163,813, the Missouri 31,378, the Mississippi 264,001.

For the sake of convenience, we give in this connection the range of prices for three years past:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.		1851.	1852.	1853.
Jan. cents.	44 to 48	38 to 41	35 to 45	July.	cts. 38 to 43	35 to 48	36 to 59
February.	41 to 46	35 to 42	32 to 39	August.	35 to 40	40 to 45	39 to 61
March.	35 to 40	32 to 37	31 to 37	September.	33 to 38	40 to 45	39 to 50
April.	35 to 40	33 to 36	30 to 42	October.	33 to 40	40 to 45	38 to 54
May.	34 to 39	30 to 43	35 to 44	November.	31 to 36	43 to 50	37½ to 46
June.	33 to 36	35 to 44	37 to 48	December.	35 to 40	41 to 43	34 to 41

PROVISIONS AND LARD.—Operations in this department of trade do not show so favorably for the year just closed as those in others already noticed. Farmers realized high prices for their hogs, but buyers generally sunk money on the products. The history of the season's transactions is a very plain one, and can be given in a few words.

A prevalent opinion was entertained at the opening, that the stock of hogs in the country did not exceed to any great extent the amount of the previous year, and that this excess would be counterbalanced by a deficiency in weight, supposed to exist, of some 10 to 15 per cent. The result showed an increase of 480,000 hogs, with a deduction of only 5 per cent. for light weight—equal to a difference, as compared with the crop of 1851-52, of 380,000 head. The number packed in the following different States, for the two past seasons, is thus given by the *Cincinnati Price Current* :—

	1851-'52.	1852-'53.		1851-'52.	1852-'53.
Ohio.....	547,373	603,152	Illinois.....	231,519	324,850
Indiana.....	447,352	590,943	Iowa.....	40,500	52,856
Kentucky.....	205,600	338,200	Missouri.....	69,436	87,200
Tennessee.....	10,000	36,500	Michigan.....	10,800	10,400
Total.....	1,562,560	2,044,097			

Hogs.—Prices, at the beginning, opened at \$4 75 to \$5, and by the first of December reached \$6; and from this they gradually rose to \$6 10, \$6 25, \$6 30 and \$6 40, and the year (1852) closed with rates as high as \$6 50. Mess pork, which had ruled high from June to October, (say \$18 to \$20 per bu.) encountered a temporary check in the latter month, but rallied again to its highest price about the beginning of the packing season, and closed out briskly and firmly at this figure. This gave an impulse to the speculative feeling abroad, which was further stimulated by an unprecedented Eastern demand for green meats. Buyers from the Atlantic cities operated largely. They purchased the products at an advance on the price of hogs, and by this means the rates were buoyed up and sustained. It is hardly necessary to say that all these Eastern speculators were more or less injured by such operations, and many of them ruined. Several lots of meat purchased by them in this market, were subsequently resold here at a loss of 25 to 30 per cent. As soon as this demand subsided, a general panic pervaded the market, and prices toppled lower and lower, as the range given in our tabular statement will show. Several operators at this point, as well as elsewhere, made purchases at the early decline, for the purpose of grading the cost of their stock to a saving point; but they only became the more deeply involved in their struggle at extrication, and finally wound up with a net loss of about 33 per cent. The money lost, however, remained in the country—in the hands of the agriculturists.

The present season commenced under entirely different circumstances from those that marked the opening of the last. Operators had just emerged from disastrous transactions—the hog crop was believed to be large—old meats closed out at a decline, with a dull market, and money was difficult to obtain. To this time these considerations still have weight. Buyers have been unwilling, so far, to pay over \$4 net, and but few lots have commanded higher rates. Sellers were, and are still in a great many instances, unwilling to submit to this price, and the number of hogs killed is not equal to that of last year at the same time. This effect is apparent in many other places. Business this season may equal that of last, (60,000 head,) but to go beyond this to any extent will require no little activity during the time yet remaining for operations.

For future reference, we give the amounts packed at the different prominent points in Illinois, Iowa, and Missouri :—

ILLINOIS.					
	'51-52.	'52-53.		'51-52.	'52-53.
Shawneetown.....	4,000	16,000	Barry.....	3,400	3,500
Beardstown.....	24,400	37,700	Pittsfield.....	1,500	2,000
Knoxville.....	650	200	Perry.....	4,276	5,173
Quincy.....	17,500	15,000	Lacon.....	11,350	6,500
Lawrenceville.....	1,100	2,650	Henry.....	600	4,000
Naples.....	2,880	1,137	Peoria.....	17,000	38,000
Exeter.....	1,400	600	Rushville.....	2,600	2,750
Macomb.....	3,000	3,900	Frederick.....	1,200	1,500
Blandinsville.....	1,100	500	Springfield.....	10,000	22,000
Middletown.....	600	none.	Lagrange.....	1,930	2,500
Alton.....	25,000	27,000	Oquawka.....	6,500	5,300
Ottawa.....	1,355	1,344	Warsaw & Hamilton.....	3,500	7,000
Pekin.....	10,000	10,000	Monmouth.....	7,976	8,400
Grayville.....	2,990	5,456	Galena.....	5,000	6,000
Albion.....	3,000	2,200	Meredosis.....	5,257	2,000
Phillipstown.....	600	600	Peru.....	1,400	3,000
Canton.....	8,378	8,361	Fulton county.....	17,100	18,100
Rockport.....	2,678	2,965	Chicago.....	13,000	50,000
New-Canton.....	none.	1,500			
Total.....			Total.....	231,569	324,854

IOWA.

	'51-52.	'52-53.		'52-53.	'51-52.
Dubuque.....	5,800	7,500	Iowa City.....	4,000	5,500
Muscatine.....	8,000	13,000	Fort Madison.....	500	4,500
Davenport.....	2,000	3,000	Burlington.....	11,000	6,000
Keokuk.....	10,000	14,000			
		Total.....		40,500	52,652

MISSOURI.

	'51-52.	'52-53.		'51-52.	'52-53.
St. Louis.....	47,000	60,000	Lagrange.....	3,500	2,500
Hannibal.....	7,876	11,500	Palmyra.....	3,000	3,200
Alexandria.....	5,000	7,000	Louisiana.....	3,000	3,000
Frankfort.....	80	none.			
		Total.....		69,436	87,200

WHISKY.—A comparative statement of the receipts of 1852 and 1853, exhibits an increase in the transactions of the latter. The following is the monthly statement:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January.....	666	2,858	February.....	4,702	4,401
March.....	6,631	5,908	April.....	4,814	5,835
May.....	4,647	4,916	June.....	3,472	3,255
July.....	3,943	3,764	August.....	2,501	4,188
September.....	1,835	3,756	October.....	5,064	3,519
November.....	4,390	4,706	December.....	2,903	2,668
		Total.....		45,568	49,774

Of the amount received for 1853, 20,335 barrels came from the Illinois River, 291 from the Missouri, 2,127 from the Ohio, and 27,021 from the Mississippi. In addition to these, 1,337 barrels were received by wagons. High freights crippled the trade somewhat, and occasional heavy receipts, on account of the difficulties of shipping, led to sudden fluctuations. On the whole, however, the article was active throughout, as increased transactions and enhanced rates sufficiently evidence.

The number of barrels manufactured by city distilleries (of which we believe there are only two) is given at 17,500—a large increase on the business of the preceding year.

STATEMENT of the Foreign Value of Goods, Wares and Merchandise Imported into this Port, and the Duties Collected in the year ending 31st December, 1853, viz.:—

	Dutiable Value.	Duties Collected.
Amounts during the first quarter ending 31st March, 1853.....	\$156,183 17.....	\$46,862 79
Amounts during the second quarter ending 30th June, 1853.....	332,869 24.....	101,783 10
Amounts during the third quarter ending 30th September, 1853.....	170,330 50.....	57,493 45
Amounts during the 4th quarter ending 31st December, 1853.....	237,692 50.....	83,121 10
	\$917,275 71.....	\$289,260 44

Foreign value and the duties thereon remaining in public store on the 31st December, 1853.....

Entered for consumption—Constructively Warehoused, viz.:—	\$14,107 70.....	\$14,107 70
Various goods, wares and merchandise.....	42,611 00.....	13,676 70
Sugar and Molasses (part to arrive).....	269,144 00.....	80,740 20
Railroad Iron.....(do.).....	103,843 00.....	59,861 50
	\$519,705 70.....	\$168,366 10

With reference to the first statement, the importations were as follows, viz.:—From England.....

From France.....	487,750 88.....	134,905 67
From Germany and Holland.....	47,835 40.....	38,616 48
From Spain and certain of her dependencies.....	79,500 48.....	23,670 14
From Matanzas and Manilla.....	96,248 00.....	29,053 90
From Pernambuco and Bahia.....	75,985 00.....	23,695 50
From various other places and ports.....	124,608 00.....	37,381 80
	2,329 05.....	1,876 95
	\$917,275 71.....	\$289,260 44

ART. VII.—THE CORN TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES.*

WHEN Jacobs was deputed, thirty years since, to examine into and report upon the probable supply of wheat which England might obtain from the Continent, the result greatly surprised the statesmen and merchants of England. He showed that the surplus of all Europe was not more than 30,000,000 bushels, of which not more than one-fifth could be imported with advantage into England. Since that time a gradual relaxation of the corn laws, and a more steady demand, have combined to enhance the culture, and consequently the supply. What was formerly considered a very large import into England in a year of scarcity, is now a small import for a year of plenty, and the course of prices all over Europe is much higher than in those years. In illustration, we append the following table, which comes down to the reform of the English customs:—

	Imported into England.	Ave. price in Europe.	Price Wheat U. States.	Price Flour U. States.	Price Wheat in England.
		s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	s. d.
1890.....bushels...	11,504,768	33 8	1 12	7 14	66 3
1890.....	13,338,304	34 10	1 15	4 84	64 4
1891.....	10,952,352	35 8	1 15	5 91	66 4
1892.....	1,510,160	32 9	1 15	5 26	58 8
Average bushels...	9,326,390	35 0	1 15	5 79	62 10
1833.....bushels...	10,560	26 10	1 13	5 25	52 11
1834.....	2,320	24 1	1 08	5 04	46 2
1835.....	960	22 0	1 19	5 73	39 4
1836.....	8,360	25 3	1 44	7 23	48 9
1837.....	1,086,176	25 0	1 83	10 19	55 10
Average bushels...	341,695	22 11	1 23	6 68	48 7
1838.....	14,550,624	38 2	1 54	7 96	64 4
1839.....	21,591,848	42 4	1 42	7 75	70 6
1840.....	18,291,000	40 4	1 10	5 44	66 4
1841.....	19,105,264	40 3	1 03	4 92	64 5
1842.....	22,902,512	39 2	1 16	6 03	57 5
Average bushels...	19,148,208	40 0	1 25	6 42	64 7

ACCOUNT OF THE FOREIGN CORN, GRAIN, MEAL, AND FLOUR IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, IN THE YEARS 1829 TO 1853.

	Wheat. Qrs.	Barley and Bigg. Qrs.	Oats. Qrs.	In Corn or Maize. Qrs.	Flour. Cwt.	Wheat per Qr. s. d.
1843.....	932,860	179,414	84,718	516	440,955	50 2
1844.....	1,097,963	1,025,416	308,120	39,218	987,774	51 3
1845.....	844,533	367,854	586,800	55,984	924,256	50 9
1846.....	1,437,336	371,137	794,863	694,184	3,363,510	54 0
1847.....	2,650,058	772,840	1,706,760	3,614,637	8,637,377	69 5
1848.....	2,477,366	977,203	930,265	1,577,023	1,731,970	50 6
1849.....	3,672,568	1,388,494	1,281,517	2,189,164	3,483,294	44 6
1850.....	3,734,592	1,043,051	1,165,876	1,286,263	3,855,058	40 4
1851.....	3,831,836	834,491	1,209,844	1,821,573	5,363,178	38 7
1852.....	3,068,892	626,737	995,479	1,479,800	3,921,634	41 0
1853.....	4,949,314	827,633	1,035,072	1,554,434	4,662,898	53 0

GRAIN EXPORTS FROM EGYPT IN 1853.

The exports of grain from Egypt were, for 1853:—

	Of which to G. B.	Total to G. B.
Wheat, qrs.....	706,000	405,600
Beans, qrs.....	215,000	166,000
Barley, qrs.....	62,000	50,000
Indian Corn.....	47,000	60,000

* From *United States Economist*, March, 1854. For the total agricultural productions of the United States in 1850, see vol. xii. Dr Bow's REVIEW.

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GRAIN EXPORTS FROM ODESSA IN 1853.

Wheat, qrs.	2,227,000	Rye, qrs.	185,000
Indian Corn.	250,000	Linseed, qrs.	150,000

The four years ending with 1833 were years of scarcity in England. The prices were high, but it was the case, the sudden demand after years of cessation having been supplied out of accumulated stocks of old wheat in Europe; this did not affect farmers until stocks were exhausted. The high prices then stimulated production, when returning good harvests in England caused the demand to cease. It was those stocks on hand which mostly operated against the United States trade. The five years ending with 1837, during which the average in England was 48s. 7d., or twenty-five per cent. less than in the previous period of four years, show a cessation of imports into England, and prices on the Continent were thirty per cent. lower, while in the United States they were very high, under the influence of paper-money speculation. In 1837 the English harvests again failed, and since that time England has been a large buyer. The effect of her large purchases has been to keep prices on the Continent pretty high, causing a more steady growth of grain. As an indication of the present range of prices per quarter on the Continent, we give prices for December of three years:—

	Dantzic.	Hamburg.	Konigsb'g.	Marseilles.	Odessa.	Galatz.	Stettin.
1831....shillings..	36 a 31	40 a 44	43 a 46	36 a 44	25 a 30	18 a 24	41 a 42
1832.....	49 a 51	41 a 46	42 a 51	36 a 46	23 a 32	24 a 27	43 a 49
1833.....	69 a 70	64 a 72	63 a 68	53 a 60	40 a 43	26 a 26	60 a 64

But it follows, in those years when Europe is short, that a larger demand falls upon the United States. That was the case in 1847, and again this year. The following table shows the import and export of grain into the United States for a number of years:—

TABLE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, OF WHEAT AND FLOUR, IN BUSHELS, TOGETHER WITH THE VALUE OF THE SAME, FROM 1831 TO 1853, INCLUSIVE.

YEARS.	Exports.		Imports.		Flour in New-York.
	Busheis.	Value.	Busheis.	Value.	
1831.	9,441,090.	\$10,461,715.	633	\$699	\$5 50
1832.	4,407,899.	4,974,123.	1,191	1,180	5 62
1833.	4,811,061.	5,642,602.	1,697	1,716	5 75
1834.	4,213,078.	4,560,379.	1,307	1,295	4 81
1835.	3,914,742.	4,446,182.	311,805	268,623	6 12
1836.	2,529,062.	3,574,561.	650,629	565,500	7 12
1837.	1,610,898.	3,014,415.	4,000,000	4,276,976.	9 50
1838.	2,247,096.	3,617,024.	927,180	940,838	7 75
1839.	4,712,086.	7,069,361.	41,725	57,747	6 87
1840.	11,198,365.	11,779,098.	1,436	1,069	4 75
1841.	8,447,670.	6,582,527.	632	900	5 00
1842.	7,237,968.	8,292,308.	4,153	3,796	6 12
1843.	4,519,055.	4,027,182.	12,121	8,542	5 12
1844.	7,751,587.	7,232,898.	1,611	1,664	4 62
1845.	6,365,866.	5,735,373.	351	287	4 50
1846.	13,061,175.	13,350,644.	822	633	4 44
1847.	26,312,431.	32,183,161.	20,364	22,878	0 50
1848.	12,764,669.	13,863,284.	369,929	337,630	5 50
1849.	12,309,972.	13,287,629.	104,110	96,659	5 25
1850.	8,658,982.	8,817,015.	2,693,803.	2,192,395.	6 12
1851.	13,948,499.	13,303,332.	2,357,492.	1,618,610.	4 13
1852.	18,680,686.	14,424,332.	2,416,088.	1,569,498.	4 12½
1853.	22,379,126.	22,087,900.	2,892,750.	1,796,549.	4 50

PRICE OF GENESEE FLOUR IN NEW-YORK CITY, ETC. 413

The imports in the last few years represent Canadian wheat. The general result of the table is a large and increasing export of wheat, but at lower prices than formerly, except in years of famine. This result is partly to be attributed to the improved means of communication, which have greatly reduced the transportation as an element of cost. The following table gives the price of flour in New-York in the first week of each of the first seven months of the last thirty-three years:—

PRICE OF GENESEE FLOUR IN NEW-YORK CITY FIRST WEEK IN EACH MONTH.

	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Average.
1823...	\$6 62½	\$6 87½	\$7 12½	\$7 00	\$7 12½	\$7 00	\$7 25½	\$7 00
1824...	6 25	6 00	6 12½	6 25	6 50	6 25	5 87½	6 19½
1825...	5 25	5 37½	5 25	5 25	5 12½	5 12½	5 25	5 21½
1826...	5 25	5 12½	5 25	4 87½	4 62½	4 37½	4 75	4 69
1827...	5 12½	6 00	5 50	5 75	5 12½	4 75	4 00	5 25
1828...	5 25	5 12½	5 00	4 75	4 62½	4 50½	4 62½	4 65
1829...	8 37½	8 50	8 12½	7 25	6 25	6 75	5 87½	7 14
1830...	5 12½	4 75	4 62½	4 75	4 87½	4 87½	4 87½	4 84
1831...	6 75	6 12½	6 75	6 87½	6 00	5 50	5 37½	5 91
1832...	6 37½	6 50	5 62½	5 12½	5 37½	5 62½	5 75	5 50
1833...	6 00	5 75	5 50	5 75	5 62½	5 75	5 87½	5 65
1834...	5 50	5 37½	5 12½	4 87½	4 75	4 81½	4 87½	5 04
1835...	5 12½	5 25	5 50	5 62½	5 75	6 12½	6 62½	5 79
1836...	7 25	7 50	7 37½	7 50	9 00	7 12½	7 12½	7 53
1837...	10 12½	11 00	11 25	10 75	9 00	9 50	9 75	10 19
1838...	8 75	8 25	8 00	8 25	7 50	7 75	7 25	7 96½
1839...	8 87½	8 93½	9 00	8 50	7 75	6 87½	6 31½	7 75
1840...	5 87½	6 37½	5 75	5 62½	5 12½	4 75	4 62½	5 44½
1841...	4 93½	4 87½	4 75	4 92½	4 81½	5 00	5 37½	4 92
1842...	5 87½	6 43½	6 12½	6 25	5 87½	6 12½	5 93½	6 03
1843...	4 56½	4 37½	4 75	5 12½	5 00	5 12½	5 62½	4 99
1844...	4 62½	4 81½	4 93½	4 90½	4 62½	4 62½	4 31½	4 60
1845...	4 68½	4 84½	4 81½	4 75	4 62½	4 50	4 62½	4 69
1846...	4 66	4 56	4 75	4 62	4 62	4 34	4 12	4 84
1847...	5 12	7 00	7 12½	7 62	7 25	9 50	6 37½	7 01
1848...	6 87	6 25	6 12½	5 75	5 62	5 50	5 64	6 02
1849...	6 00	5 87	6 00	5 50	5 50	5 25	4 93	5 56
1850...	4 50	6 50	5 50	5 50	5 75	6 12	6 18½	5 62½
1851...	5 00	5 00	4 75	5 00	4 62	4 12	4 37½	6 68½
1852...	4 56	4 62	4 62	4 31	4 12½	4 12½	4 09	4 37½
1853...	5 50	5 50	5 00	4 56	4 68	4 50	4 68½	4 94
1854...	7 87½	8 75						

The canals had not, in 1823, begun permanently to affect prices, nor had railroads come to their aid in supplying the city demands. When they began to affect the supply, speculation intervened, and in only three years prior to 1841 was the average below \$5. In the four years ending with 1846, the average did not reach \$5. If, now, we take a table of the arrivals of wheat at Buffalo from the lakes, and at Albany from the canals, with the value at Albany, we shall see how large a quantity, in years of small export, is required to send the price below \$5.

TABLE SHOWING THE WHEAT AND FLOUR ARRIVING AT OSWEGO AND BUFFALO FROM THE WEST, AND THE QUANTITY ARRIVED AT TIDEWATER BY CANALS, WITH THE AVERAGE PRICE AT ALBANY PER BARREL.

Years.	Wheat.			Flour.				Total in bbls. at Albany.	Prs. at Albany.
	Oswego.	Buffalo.	Tidewater.	Oswego.	Buffalo.	T'water.	T'water.		
1845...	—	4,765,161	3,354,480	—	1,375,500	2,170,260	2,842,146	—	\$5 57
1846...	—	6,419,100	3,950,636	—	1,857,000	3,063,441	3,652,804	—	5 05
1847...	—	4,520,117	4,143,830	—	1,949,000	3,959,957	4,780,338	—	6 84
1848...	—	4,043,978	9,116,134	—	1,907,435	3,131,095	3,753,802	—	5 58
1849...	3,615,677	3,608,261	2,734,369	317,753	1,096,187	3,263,187	3,739,759	—	5 00
1850...	3,847,384	4,260,064	3,679,754	302,557	1,261,362	3,256,077	3,990,236	—	5 00
1851...	4,231,599	5,549,778	3,166,686	389,929	1,299,513	3,358,466	3,991,901	—	4 00
1852...	—	4,653,510	6,436,887	—	1,308,274	3,464,168	4,615,697	—	4 53
1853...	—	5,107,314	9,436,887	—	962,885	3,080,890	4,968,299	—	4 77

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This table does not give the full tidewater supply, because the Erie and the Central railroads now bring a portion. The New-York canals, however, with the Pennsylvania Canal and the Mississippi River at New-Orleans, are the most important outlets. The inspections at Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Richmond, are indications of relative quantities in those localities. The Boston receipts are mostly from the New-York canals, and those at Philadelphia from Canada.

The following table shows the general movement for some years at the most important points on the seaboard :—

MOVEMENT OF FLOUR ON THE SEABOARD OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Receipts at New-Orleans.	Pittsburg, Pa. Canal.	Per N. Y. Canals.	Received at Boston.	Received at Portland.	Phila.	Inspections at Balt.	Richm'd.
1841	494,194	109,578	1,829,644	574,223	—	—	628,974	162,900
1842	439,688	114,107	1,776,051	609,450	—	—	528,282	134,200
1843	521,173	130,858	2,239,177	610,964	—	—	560,431	187,700
1844	502,507	100,454	2,474,653	656,586	60,806	466,132	499,501	187,000
1845	533,312	82,092	2,842,146	730,138	74,447	533,436	576,745	182,500
1846	637,985	156,412	3,652,808	748,123	80,000	674,648	850,119	289,500
1847	1,667,975	297,940	4,780,338	1,020,497	81,700	708,981	959,456	159,500
1848	706,958	132,527	3,753,802	905,499	119,460	511,279	736,441	180,100
1849	1,013,177	139,203	3,739,759	1,007,964	139,812	633,533	764,519	271,000
1850	591,980	72,072	3,990,236	739,661	150,679	653,628	904,592	336,370
1851	941,106	200,538	3,991,201	690,520	160,702	678,506	912,408	314,100
1852	927,212	236,904	4,815,097	896,454	166,340	848,547	540,885	389,000
1853	808,672	—	4,968,255	935,967	186,877	933,528	638,446	—

If we scan this table in connection with the prices in New-York, we find that the receipts everywhere repounded to a rise. Thus the highest year was 1847, and every point shows a large increase in that year. It was, however, the case, that transportation was then very inadequate to the demand, and the deliveries in that year were the *maximum* capacity. In the present year the railroads have added largely to the means of the West to deliver. The following shows the deliveries of wheat and flour, in bushels of wheat, at four leading points of the West : St. Louis, on the Mississippi ; Toledo, at the outlet of the Indiana Canal ; Milwaukee, on the Lake ; and Cleveland, at the mouth of the Ohio Canal :—

QUANTITY OF WHEAT AND FLOUR, IN BUSHELS OF WHEAT, RECEIVED AT CERTAIN POINTS.

	St. Louis, per River.	Toledo.	Milwaukee.	Cleveland.
1844	bushels.....1,165,068	343,765	—	—
18451,667,435	—	—	—
18461,941,207	1,297,849	—	3,308,647
18474,076,217	1,545,820	—	5,489,376
18484,139,359	1,995,761	—	4,250,612
18493,326,135	1,426,963	—	2,741,250
18503,400,532	1,460,441	—	2,031,244
18513,257,032	2,234,551	639,799	3,758,349
1852815,921	3,250,208	689,576	6,722,909
18533,076,032	2,929,361	1,977,190	—

In 1847 water-carriage had no competition ; at present, the Cleveland and Cincinnati Railroad, the Sandusky Railroad, the Central Michigan and the Southern, deliver collectively as much wheat as the Ohio Canal at Cleveland.

The census of 1840 gave the wheat crop of the Union at 84,823,272 bushels for 1839. Of that quantity, 11,198,365 bush-

els, as above, were exported. Nevertheless, the price fell nearly twenty-five per cent. In 1850 the census gave the crop at 104,799,230. Of that quantity 8,658,982 was exported, and the price rose twenty per cent. Now we observe, from the above table of deliveries, that notwithstanding the whole population increased 6,000,000, the deliveries at the above points universally show a quantity at least double in 1851 what was produced in 1841. The aggregates were as follows:—

	Population.	Crops per census.	Bush. per head.	Prices in N. York.	Agg. deliveries on seaboard. Bushels.	Export. Bushels.
1840.....	17,069,453.....	84,823,272.....	5.0.....	\$4 92.....	16,243,066.....	11,198,265
1850.....	23,257,723.....	104,799,230.....	4.5.....	5 62.....	33,569,515.....	8,658,982

If the crop of 1847 had been the average of those census figures, 95,000,000 bushels, out of which 26,312,431 were exported, there would have remained 68,700,000 bushels for consumption, or above three and a half bushels per head—a very small proportion. It is very evident, however, from the enhanced deliveries on a larger population, that the crop must have been very much larger than given by the census. The crop of the past year is supposed to have been much larger than for the previous one, and the pinch in the market about harvest time caused great numbers of hands to be discharged from railroads, whence we may infer that, if the grain was in the ground, it was largely harvested. The exports of wheat from the Union since August 1st have been, however, as follows:—

EXPORTS OF FLOUR FROM THE UNITED STATES, FROM AUGUST TO DATE.

	N. York.	Boston.	Baltim.	Philad.	Rich.	Chas'n.	N. O.	Total.
G. Britain and Ireland...	727,140..	23,236..	237,137..	262,526..	5,224..	3,100..	81,396..	1,339,749
France.....	509,469..	14,118..	4,936..	— ..	— ..	— ..	3,321..	509,469
Other parts of Europe...	37,023..	10,796..	6,731..	— ..	— ..	— ..	95..	58,004
Australia.....	21,208..	12,920..	616..	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	47,774
California.....	49,897..	61,590..	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	113,738
West Indies.....	48,668..	12,134..	24,320..	50,295..	— ..	1,169..	2,267..	138,873
British Colonies.....	79,421..	42,469..	— ..	1,240..	2,112..	— ..	— ..	125,242
Cuba.....	2,955..	300..	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	5,615
South America.....	55,811..	4,237..	75,220..	27,978..	40,886..	— ..	19,656..	224,783
Other places.....	1,334..	422..	125..	30,803..	— ..	— ..	1,272..	33,956

Total bbls. Flour.....1,532,859 182,232..349,085..372,839.. 64,768.. 7,685.. 246,179.. 2,755,633

This brings the export down to the second week in February. If to these we add the wheat exports, we shall have the whole quantity of wheat sent out of the country since August 1:—

EXPORTS OF WHEAT FROM THE UNITED STATES, FROM AUGUST 1 TO DATE.

	New-York.	Boston.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.	New-Orleans.	Total.
From Aug. 1 to Feb. 18.						Wheat.
England.....	3,382,052.....	— ..	453,146.....	265,250.....	7,806..	4,138,363
Scotland.....	235,613.....	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	235,613
Ireland.....	141,704.....	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	141,704
Wales.....	49,392.....	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	49,392
France.....	1,102,432.....	6,939.....	— ..	4,706.....	108,622.....	1,232,706
North of Europe.....	493,745.....	— ..	— ..	11,513.....	— ..	505,258
British W. Indies.....	4,005.....	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	4,005
British N. A. Colonies.....	4,093.....	— ..	— ..	5,791.....	— ..	9,884
Gibraltar.....	2,100.....	— ..	— ..	— ..	— ..	2,100
Other places.....	— ..	— ..	14,116.....	— ..	— ..	14,116
	5,415,136.....	6,939.....	497,232.....	287,299.....	116,525.....	6,316,172

The aggregate gives 20,104,357 bushels of wheat exported since July, that is to say, four-fifths as much as for the whole year 1847. It follows that unless the crop was very large, the quantity now in the country must be very small.

It is hardly to be expected that great exertions have been made to extend the wheat culture, since it has not been the most profitable crop. But if war is really to supervene in Europe, and the waste and devastation of armies fighting on the wheat grounds of Europe is to continue as long as many anticipate from a general war, then must of necessity the wheat crop become the most profitable and steady for the American farmer. It has only been, as seen above, through forty years of peaceful industry and rising prices for wheat, under the steady demand for England, that production has been developed to meet her wants. If war is again to destroy those sources of supply, then, indeed, will the dependence on America be great.

ART. VIII.—THE COMMERCE OF THE OHIO, AND ITS OBSTRUCTIONS.

REPORT.—(Continued.)

THE construction of dry-docks now going on at Kittery, in the State of Maine, at Pensacola, and at San Francisco, involving an expenditure of nearly five millions of dollars, which are to be used, when completed, in the occasional repair of a national vessel, were authorized without a murmur from the West; whilst at the same time the West was asking but a small appropriation of a few hundred thousand dollars, to relieve Western commerce from an unjust tax; and their memorials were treated with indifference, or, if reported by committees, were allowed to rest silently upon the tables of Congress, without further action. If anything could equal the astonishment created by the neglect of the Ohio River, it would be the extreme partiality of the Government for the seacoast and other waters. If the master of a fishing-smack or a wood schooner complains to Government that some obscure inlet or bay on the Atlantic coast would be benefited by a light-house, it is instantly granted, for his accommodation; or, if the coast service requires a railway dock, a breakwater, or any other improvement under the regulation of marine laws, there is no hesitation in making the improvement, under the clause of the Constitution which confers power on Congress to regulate commerce. The Western waters are also under the same marine laws, and by decisions of the Supreme Court, subject to all their exactions and penalties, free from the interruption of their navigation, by any power but the General Government. The Wheeling Bridge case defines the rights of the nation, and settles the principle of marine jurisdiction over the Ohio. But, whilst this is claimed by the nation, another clause of the Constitution is neglected, which prohibits Congress from giving a preference, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one State over those of another.

If the annual losses to the commerce of the country, occasioned by the obstruction at the Falls, could be correctly estimated, it would amount to the annual loss of more than a million of dollars; a sum equal to the inter-

est on an investment of sixteen millions. This is the tax paid by the consumers and producers of Western products, for the delays and procrastination of the General Government, in removing an obstruction to the transit of a commerce more extensive, and more valuable, than any other in the known world.

In the safe and speedy navigation of the Ohio River the whole of the Union is interested. The commerce of every State and Territory must be affected, to some extent, by any obstruction to the flow of commerce through this great and leading artery of the commercial system, the pulsations of which are sensibly felt, not only at the centre, but in all the extremities.

It is therefore unwise and highly injurious to the general welfare to make this work a local question, or to connect it with any political considerations, which might, in any form, have a tendency to delay the action of Congress in promoting the public good.

The Ohio and Mississippi rivers have been, and still are, the great avenues for the westward march of our Empire. The country is indebted to the hardy pioneers of the West for the opening of this immense navigation, and for the first successful application of steam on the Western waters, which now present a fleet of steamers of eight or nine hundred vessels, with a tonnage larger than any other portion of the Old or New World.

Let us now look at the resources of this trade, which is yet in its infancy, just beginning to be developed, and brought into commercial activity. For this, it will be necessary to refer to the report of the Census of 1850, for the returns of a part of the products of those States, whose trade, commerce, and general welfare, are more or less affected by the obstructions in the Ohio River: Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Wisconsin, Louisiana, Tennessee, Mississippi, Arkansas, part of New-York, part of Pennsylvania, and part of Virginia. The population of these States, and parts of States, may be put down at an estimate of at least ten millions of souls.

The cultivated land in these States, three years ago, amounted to forty millions of acres, with the following estimate of agricultural products in 1849:—

46,891,456 bushels of Wheat;	27,230,747 pounds of Cheese;
370,346,750 bushels of Indian Corn;	3,371,154 tons of Hay;
108,411,017 pounds of Tobacco;	58,633 tons dew-rotted Hemp;
366,844,800 pounds of Ginned Cotton;	357,346 bushels of Flax Seed;
22,285,545 pounds of Wool;	9,238,883 pounds of Maple Sugar;
76,308 gallons of Wine;	262,764,000 pounds of Cane Sugar.
102,227,471 pounds of Butter;	

Other important products of the West are not included in this estimate which would swell the value to a much greater extent.

The iron, coal, fruit, whisky, the product of hogs, cattle, sheep, and all manufactured articles, go to make up the commerce of this region. Enough, however, has been given to show the value of Western commerce, and if the value of lands and improvements represent the wealth of a country, then we may safely estimate the value of forty millions of acres of land, with improvements, at more than eleven hundred millions of dollars.

The Ohio and Mississippi rivers, which pass through the great valley, extending from the Rocky Mountains to the crest of the Alleghanies, furnish the great central stems for the various streams of commerce, flowing in from both sides, and extending from East to West, over nearly fifty degrees of latitude. The Ohio in its course, for nearly one thousand miles, passes over the richest fields of coal and iron mines known to the world. The Western bituminous coal field, extending from the Alleghany over the

Western portion of Pennsylvania, and the greater portion of Ohio and Kentucky, appearing also in Indiana, Wisconsin, and Iowa; add to this the advantage of the diversity of climate, and it will be found that the vast variety of soil, climate, and people, thus united, supplies almost every element of commerce. From the high latitudes, where snow almost never melts, to the region where it never falls, there is a continuous steamboat navigation—the inhabitant of the North exchanging his furs for the sugar and cotton of the South. These regions are united not only by water communication, but also spread over with a net-work of railways and canals, which tie and connect all their parts, with these central arteries, creating new demands for commerce, and furnishing additional inducements to remove its obstructions. And yet, with all this energy and private enterprise displayed on all sides, in the creation and promotion of Western commerce, the General Government cannot be prevailed upon to relinquish for a moment the miser's grasp upon the tolls of the Louisville Canal; enjoying, as a partner, the profits of a stock which cannot be forced into competition with private enterprise without the consent of Congress. The West might have some patience in submitting to the delay of Congress in removing this obstruction, if the expense were great, or if natural obstructions prevented the execution of the work. But the surveys of private companies, and those made by order of the Government, all agree that a canal of ample dimensions, for the accommodation of the commerce of the Ohio, can be constructed on the Indiana side of the river, at an expense of less than 1,500,000 dollars. The estimate of Mr. Purcell, a competent engineer, reported to a company in 1836, the cost of a canal on the Indiana side of the river, to be 1,400,000 dollars.

In 1844, Captain Cram made careful surveys of the Falls of the Ohio, by order of the Government, and reported the cost of a canal on the Indiana side at less than 1,500,000 dollars.

In 1850, W. J. Ball made a survey for a company chartered by the State of Indiana, and made the cost of a canal on the Indiana side at less than 700,000 dollars.

In 1852, Colonel Long, through the Topographical Bureau, reported the cost of a canal on the Indiana side, at 1,400,000 dollars; making the distance between the head of the canal and its termination in the big eddy, less than one mile in length.

Again, the same engineer made a survey, and reported at the last session of Congress several plans for the improvement of the Falls, and the enlargement of the Louisville Canal. In this report, a canal on the Indiana side of the river, with locks of 400 feet in length, and the canal 80 feet wide, was estimated to cost about 1,500,000 dollars.

Now, it is evident from these facts, that a canal of sufficient magnitude, to accommodate the present and future commerce of the Ohio, can be constructed on the Indiana side of the river for a sum not exceeding 1,500,000 dollars. When that work is completed and ready for the accommodation of the commerce, an additional sum of 300 or 400,000 dollars would enlarge the locks of the present canal, and thus afford accommodations for the passage of vessels on each side of the river.

To attempt to enlarge the present work, before another passage around the Falls is provided for the commerce of the river, would be attended with the most disastrous results to the trade of the Upper Ohio. Such a proceeding, by interrupting the navigation through the present canal, would be ruinous to commerce, until the work was completed, which, according to Captain Cram's report, might be four or five years, and under the most favorable auspices, not less than two years of interruption to the navigation around the Falls. It is therefore to be presumed that the Government will provide for another avenue, and thus afford an ascending and descending navigation around this obstruction.

The value of the commerce of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, annually floated on those streams, cannot be estimated at less than two hundred and fifty millions of dollars. It is the duty of the Government to protect this commerce, and to prevent its destruction on the great public highways, by obstacles which could be removed by small comparative expense.

The time has now arrived when the National Government can have no apology for longer delay in furnishing additional facilities for the passage of the commerce of the Ohio around the Falls. Surveys have been made favorable to the work; bills have been passed in both Houses of Congress, to the second reading; the labor of the country is ready to commence the undertaking; the National Treasury has a surplus of twenty-five millions of dollars unemployed; more than half this amount was placed there by the people of the Mississippi Valley, and they now justly demand a free navigation of the Ohio River, subject only to the penalties of marine jurisdiction, and thus placed on an equal footing with other portions of the Union. The West has a river coast more extensive than the Atlantic or the Pacific, and for the protection of their interior trade they have not demanded from the Government light-houses for their harbors, nor breakwaters, or dry-docks for their vessels; with one exception, not a dollar has ever been expended for such purposes, and yet the ports on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers have the same right to be rendered accessible and convenient, at the public expense, as any port on the Atlantic or Pacific coast.

The Government keeps a fleet of vessels for the protection of our ocean commerce, at an expense of ten millions of dollars annually.

Private enterprise, connected with the Atlantic commerce, has been fostered and supported by the General Government. The owners of the Collins' line of steamers received assistance and aid from the nation, to enable their vessels to compete with the British lines.

The expedition, fitted out at great expense, to open a new trade with the Japanese, is a national expenditure, authorized, by receiving the votes of Western members for the appropriations. To these national objects, where the general good of the country can be promoted, or its honor sustained, there is no murmuring from the West. From every portion of this great Valley of the Mississippi, embracing a territorial area of more than 1,200,000 square miles, there is a cheerful acquiescence in all the national measures which go to benefit any portion of the Union. Do the citizens of the West, then, ask too much, when they claim that the commerce of the Ohio River shall be relieved from an unjust tax, exacted by the Government, and this great centre of commercial activity, freed from the delays, losses, and interruptions caused by an inefficient avenue around the Falls of the Ohio?

There are other considerations which should induce the Government to make this improvement at the present time.

The nation is now making the preliminary surveys of several lines of railways, to connect the Atlantic with the Pacific Ocean, and when these communications are completed, to present a speedy, safe, and cheap transit over our Continent, for the products of the great Eastern World, intended for the supply of the European nations.

Now, it is evident, that any railroad constructed to the Pacific coast, must have a connection with the Mississippi River, and if at Memphis, St. Louis, or any other point, the Ohio River must become an important avenue for that Eastern freight, on its way to the Atlantic coast.

If the great commerce of the Eastern world is desirable, and if this nation is to have the carrying trade of it across our Continent, then we must commence early to improve the avenues which that trade is to occupy, and be ready to receive it when it is offered.

When the teas and silks of China, with the anticipated products of the Island of Japan, are hourly deposited on the banks of the Mississippi, by

railroad, there to be distributed to all points of the Union, will the General Government maintain the position of a toll-gatherer, at the gates of an inefficient canal, through which a great portion of this commerce is to pass, and thus interdict and embarrass a trade which has been the prize contended for, the last fifteen centuries, by all the nations of Europe? It is the commerce of the East which is now agitating the peace of the world, and marshalling the great powers of Europe on the battle-field, to decide the supremacy in obtaining possession of it. In this struggle the United States may be involved, and in the event of a war which should induce an enemy to blockade the mouth of the Mississippi River, and crowd our interior channels with the immense products of the South, which now find their way to the Gulf of Mexico, how important would it then be, to pass the sugar and cotton of the South over the Falls of the Ohio, without the delay of weeks and months waiting for vessels to pass an insignificant avenue, rendered useless for the ordinary trade by its contracted dimensions and inefficient management.

AMOUNTS APPROPRIATED IN EACH YEAR.

1800.....	\$48,400	
<i>Mr. Madison's Administration.</i>		
1810.....	\$60,000	
1811.....	50,000	
1812.....	30,000	
1813.....	100,000	
1816.....	10,000	
1817.....	4,000	
		254,000
<i>Mr. Monroe's Administration.</i>		
1818.....	\$317,960	
1823.....	32,920	
1824.....	175,000	
1825.....	176,712	
		702,692
<i>Mr. Adams's Administration.</i>		
1826.....	\$284,253	
1827.....	398,541	
1828.....	1,020,120	
1829.....	608,560	
		2,311,474
<i>Gen. Jackson's Administration.</i>		
1830.....	\$679,506	
1831.....	926,311	
1832.....	1,225,008	
1833.....	1,159,451	
1834.....	1,641,621	
1835.....	1,352,243	
1836.....	1,837,520	
1837.....	1,768,218	
		10,582,878
<i>Mr. Van Buren's Administration.</i>		
1838†.....	\$2,087,044	
1839.....	60,500	
1841.....	75,000	
		2,222,544
<i>Mr. Tyler's Administration.</i>		
1842.....	\$100,000	
1843.....	230,000	
1844.....	698,500	
1845.....	50,000	
		1,078,500
Total.....	\$17,198,417‡	

RECAPITULATION.

Maine.....	\$276,574
New-Hampshire.....	10,000
Massachusetts.....	526,148
Vermont.....	101,000
Rhode Island.....	32,000
Connecticut.....	160,407
New-York.....	1,632,115
New-Jersey.....	28,963
Pennsylvania.....	207,981
Pennsylvania and Delaware.....	38,413
Delaware.....	2,038,356
Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia.....	1,001,237
Maryland.....	55,000
Virginia.....	25,000
North Carolina.....	370,000
Georgia.....	243,043
Florida.....	287,712
Alabama.....	204,997
Mississippi.....	46,500
Louisiana.....	717,200
Tennessee.....	11,920
Kentucky and Tennessee.....	155,000
Arkansas.....	486,065
Missouri and Arkansas.....	100,000
Missouri.....	75,000
States through which the Western rivers pass, (Ohio, Mississippi, Missouri and Arkansas).....	1,598,000
Indiana.....	1,370,733
Illinois.....	993,601
Ohio.....	2,617,661
Michigan.....	645,724
Wisconsin Territory.....	167,500
Iowa Territory.....	75,000

Total.....\$17,198,417‡

* The million of this sum was for the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal.

† The appropriation law of 1838 directed that but, a portion (not exceeding one-half) of amounts appropriated should be expended in that year.

‡ Fractions of dollars are omitted in these sums.

Art. IX.—STATISTICS OF COMMERCE, POPULATION, ETC.

CANADA—SHIPWRECKS—EUROPEAN STATISTICS—AMERICAN INDEBTEDNESS—
SHIP-BUILDING, MINING, ETC.

SOME months ago we published a few remarks upon the *progress of Canada*, in which a notable typographical error occurred, pointed out in one of the Northern papers. As the mistake was evident to every one, we did not think it worth while to correct it at the time. The population of the two Provinces amounts to 1,842,210; that of cities and towns to 181,031; of counties and villages, 1,671,231.

If the statements here made are correct, the ratio of increase of population in the Provinces for the past five years has been vastly greater than in the United States. The increase of population in the United States for 50 years, from 1800 to 1850, was not quite 400 per cent, while in Upper Canada, it was upwards of 1,100 per cent. for 40 years, from 1811 to 1851. From our census it appears that the three States of Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois, contained in 1830, 1,126,851. In 1850 they contained 8,505,000, a little over 320 per cent. in 20 years. Canada West, in 1830, contained 210,473; in 1849 it contained 791,000, which is an increase of over 375 per cent. for the same period of 20 years—so that the increase in these three choice States was 55 per cent. less than that of Canada West during the same time. The Gore and Wellington districts have increased 1,900 per cent. in 33 years up to 1850; the Western district has increased over 1,700 per cent.; the London district 55 per cent.; the county of Niagara about 380; while the county of Oxford has doubled its population in 89 years.

The increase in the extreme West of Canada has been still more striking. The counties of Huron, Perth, and Bruce, have increased from 5,600 in 1841, to 37,000 in 1851, being upwards of 571 per cent. in 10 years, an increase almost beyond comprehension. It appears from Smith's work on Canada, that the Huron district has made more rapid progress since its first settlement in 1827, than the States of Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois, did in double that time, or than Lower Canada did in 104 years.

The increase of population in Boston, between 1840 and 1850, was 45 per cent.; in Toronto for the same period, 95 per cent. The increase in population of New-York as compared with Toronto, is $2\frac{1}{2}$ times in the 20 years from 1830 to 1850, against 6 times in 18 years between 1832 and 1850, 16 times in 60 years, against 75 times in 49 years—66 per cent. between 1840 and 1850, against 95 per cent.

St. Louis, which in 1850 had 70,000 inhabitants, had increased it 15 times that in 1820. Toronto in 1850 had increased 18 times that in 1817. The population in Cincinnati was in 1850, 115,590, or 12 times its amount in 1820, 30 years before; and Toronto had in 1850, 18 times its population in 1817, or 33 years before. Hamilton had in 1830 a population of 2,846; by the last census, 44,112.

MARINE DISASTERS IN 1853.

G. W. Rounds, agent of the N. W. Insurance Company, at Buffalo, has compiled his annual list of marine disasters and loss of life on the Lakes for the season of 1853. The following is a recapitulation of the list:—

Total loss of property for 1853.....	\$974,123
" " life "	81
Amount of loss by American vessels.....	635,223
" " British "	238,020

Amount of loss by Steam vessels	\$463,600
" " Sail	412,343
" " Collision	55,828
" " Explosion	78,394
" " Fire	131,050
" " Other cause	608,871
Amount of loss on Lake Ontario:—		
" " Steam	188,400
" " Sail	94,077 282,477
" " Erie steam	128,606
" " Erie sail	121,606 250,512
" " Huron st'r	88,594
" " Huron sail	62,744 151,388
" " Superior st'r	32,500

Of the two hundred and sixty-six disasters here detailed, nineteen occurred in April, thirty in May, seventeen in June, eleven in July, twenty-eight in August, thirty in September, thirty-nine in October, eighty in November, and twelve in December.

Six steamers, two propellers, and thirty sail vessels have gone out of existence entirely.

The number of accidents exceeds those of last year by thirty-seven, while the loss of property is less by \$118,516. The decrease in loss of life and property by collision and explosion shows a very gratifying result of the fiscal year's operations of the new law relating to vessels propelled by steam, and the improved system of lights. With but one exception, (that of the Ocean Wave, on Ontario,) no lives have been lost on any of the regular passage steamers by any accident whatever.

The loss by collision in 1822 was \$261,950, and loss of life 296; while that of '53 is—of life, 81, and of property by collision, only \$55,828.

The following tables are made up for the *European States*, showing the amount of *revenue* collected from each person and family, *debt*, *army*, *population*, etc. :—

COUNTRIES.	Revenue.	Proportion raised per head.			Proportion paid by each family.		
		£	1s.	4d.	£	1s.	8d.
Great Britain.....	£30,000,000.....	1	17	6	9	8	6
France.....	67,000,000.....	0	8	4	2	1	8
Austria.....	\$100,000,000.....	0	10	7	2	12	11
Prussia.....	60,000,000.....	0	4	8	1	3	4
Russia.....	110,000,000.....	1	14	3	7	11	3
Holland.....	40,000,000.....	0	18	7	4	12	11
Belgium.....	31,000,000.....	0	18	5	4	12	1
Spain.....	80,000,000.....	0	15	5	3	17	1
Portugal.....	18,000,000.....	0	13	7	3	7	11
Denmark.....	12,500,000.....	0	6	8	1	13	4
Sweden.....	10,500,000.....	0	14	1	3	10	5
Papal States.....	15,000,000.....	0	10	11	2	12	7
Naples.....	31,000,000.....	1	11	9	7	18	9
Tuscany.....	18,000,000.....	0	15	6	3	17	6
Sardinia.....	22,000,000.....	0	4	1	1	00	5
Turkey.....	17,000,000.....	0	00	5½	0	2	4½
Switzerland.....	400,000.....	0	3	4	0	10	8
San Marino.....	8,820.....						

TONNAGE ENTERED.

	United States.			Great Britain.		
	United States.	Foreign.	Total.	Great Britain.	Foreign.	Total.
1800.....	682,871.....	122,882.....	806,753.....	922,594.....	780,155.....	1,702,749.....
1807.....	1,099,876.....	47,673.....	1,237,548.....	907,704.....	680,144.....	1,487,407.....
1814.....	59,626.....	48,302.....	107,928.....	1,290,248.....	599,287.....	1,889,535.....
1820.....	801,252.....	79,204.....	480,457.....	1,668,060.....	477,611.....	2,115,671.....
1830.....	870,399.....	134,419.....	1,004,718.....	2,180,042.....	758,828.....	2,938,070.....
1840.....	1,576,946.....	712,363.....	2,209,309.....	2,807,367.....	1,298,840.....	4,106,207.....
1850.....	2,573,016.....	1,775,623.....	4,348,839.....	4,078,544.....	2,035,152.....	6,113,696.....
1852.....	2,235,522.....	2,057,358.....	5,292,880.....	4,207,815.....	2,402,354.....	6,730,169.....

STATE OR NATION.	Debt in Prussian dollars.	Men in army.	Vessels in feet.	Guns.	Population.
Great Britain and Ireland.....	5,000,000,000	129,000	678	18,000	27,500,000
Spain.....	1,300,000,000	160,000	50	721	13,000,000
Austria.....	1,100,000,000	500,000	a154	600	36,000,000
Russia.....	733,000,000	700,000	b615	7,000	70,000,000
Holland.....	731,000,000	50,000	123	2,300	3,500,000
Prussia.....	180,000,000	c121,000	47	114	17,000,000
France.....	1,330,000,000	265,463	328	8,000	36,000,000
Belgium.....	165,000,000	90,000	5	36	5,000,000
Portugal.....	160,000,000	38,000	30	700	3,500,000
Papal States.....	120,000,000	19,000	5	24	3,200,000
Sardinia.....	120,000,000	38,000	60	900	4,250,000
Naples.....	100,000,000	48,000	15	484	8,500,000
Bavaria.....	82,000,000	57,000	—	—	5,000,000
Denmark.....	80,000,000	20,000	33	1,120	2,750,000
Saxony.....	43,500,000	25,000	—	—	2,000,000
Turkey.....	40,000,000	220,000	60	800	12,500,000
Hamburg.....	34,000,000	1,800	—	—	170,000
Baden.....	23,000,000	18,000	—	—	1,500,000
Hanover.....	30,366,000	21,000	—	—	2,000,000
Wurtemberg.....	28,000,000	19,000	—	—	2,000,000
Greece.....	25,000,000	8,900	34	131	1,000,000
Mecklenburg.....	10,000,000	4,700	—	—	540,000
Tuscany.....	10,000,000	10,000	10	15	1,700,000
Frankfort.....	7,000,000	1,300	—	—	65,000
Brunswick.....	6,800,000	3,000	—	—	300,000
Duchy of Hesse.....	6,200,000	42,000	—	—	900,000
Electoral Hesse.....	6,000,000	11,000	—	—	800,000
Lubeck.....	6,000,000	490	—	—	50,000
Saxe Weimar.....	4,000,000	2,000	—	—	75,000
Schleswick, &c.....	4,000,000	—	—	—	650,000
Anhalt.....	3,500,000	700	—	—	d150,000
Bremen.....	3,000,000	500	—	—	80,000
Saxe Coburg.....	2,566,000	1,200	—	—	160,000
Saxe Meiningen.....	2,500,000	2,400	—	—	260,000
Nassau.....	2,000,000	3,500	—	—	425,000
Parma.....	1,800,000	5,000	—	—	50,000
Anhalt.....	1,500,000	300	—	—	50,000
Saxe Altenburg.....	1,500,000	1,000	—	—	150,000
Norway.....	1,500,000	25,000	160	560	1,800,000
Oldenburg.....	1,300,000	600	—	—	80,000
Hesse Homburg.....	800,000	350	—	—	25,000
Schwarzburg.....	250,000	540	—	—	60,000
Sweden.....	—	34,000	340	2,400	3,500,000
Modena.....	—	3,500	—	—	525,000
Lippe Detmold.....	—	820	—	—	110,000
Reuss.....	—	750	—	—	130,000
Waldeck.....	—	520	—	—	60,000
Switzerland.....	—	69,500	—	—	2,500,000
San Marino.....	—	—	—	—	8,000

a, including gun-boats; b, 175 vessels, 440 gun-boats; c, war-footing 492,000; d, includes the three divisions of Anhalt.

The totals of the preceding columns sum up thus:—

Debt.....	\$11,567,044,000	Guns.....	44,105
Men in army.....	2,773,833	Population.....	271,403,000
Vessels in feet.....	2,763		

In addition to these, the Danubian Principalities, with a population of 1,750,000, maintain an army of 6,800 men, and pay an annual tribute of 3,000,000 piastres to Turkey. Servia, with a population of 1,000,000, maintains an army of 3,000, and pays an annual tribute of 2,000,000 piastres to Turkey. The debts of the various nations are expressed in Prussian dollars, whose current value is 3s. English.

The Secretary of the Treasury has transmitted to Congress a statement of the amount of indebtedness of federal, state, city, county, rail-road, canal, and corporation stocks, or other evidences of debt held in Europe on the 30th June, 1853. He gives the amount of State bonds outstanding at the period above named, and amount held by foreigners, as far as the same can be ascertained, viz.: \$190,718,221, of which amount \$72,931,507 are held by foreigners:—

STATES.	Bonds outstanding.	Held by foreigners.	STATES.	Bonds outstanding.	Held by foreigners.
Maine.....	\$471,500.....	None.	Alabama.....	\$4,497,000.....	\$4,397,666
N. Hampshire..	74,899.....	do.	Louisiana.....	9,359,207.....	8,000,000
Vermont.....	None.....	do.	Arkansas.....	2,488,830.....	No return.
Massachusetts..	6,445,000.....	\$4,000,000	Mississippi.....	7,271,997.....	do.
Rhode Island...	None.....	None.	Tennessee.....	3,263,850.....	do.
Connecticut....	do.....	do.	Kentucky.....	5,571,297.....	do.
New-York.....	24,323,838.....	6,738,700	Missouri.....	802,000.....	40,000
New-Jersey.....	None.....	None.	Illinois.....	17,600,000.....	Not known.
Pennsylvania..	40,021,445.....	26,584,671	Indiana.....	7,712,850.....	2,570,000
Delaware.....	None.....	None.	Ohio.....	16,542,549.....	7,750,000
Maryland.....	15,356,524.....	8,537,917	Michigan.....	2,389,550.....	Not known.
Virginia.....	12,089,382.....	3,075,909	Wisconsin.....	100,000.....	None.
N. Carolina....	2,224,000.....	None.	Iowa.....	88,000.....	do.
S. Carolina....	1,925,893.....	937,777	Texas.....	5,341,628.....	105,907
Georgia.....	2,802,472.....	72,000	California....	2,997,488.....	Not known.
Florida.....	None.....	None.			

The cashier of the Bank of America, in reply to a letter of inquiry, gives the amount of bonds of the State of Kentucky held by foreigners as \$1,200,000.

Winslow, Lanier & Co., of New-York, state, in reply to a letter of inquiry, that "it will be very difficult for us to say where the State securities are held, whether in Europe or this country, yet we can near it sufficiently so, perhaps, for your purposes: 1. As to the debt of Georgia, fully three-fourths of it is held in Europe. 2. Tennessee, over one-half held in Europe. 3. Michigan, more than two-thirds held in Europe, chiefly in Holland. 4. North Carolina, mostly held in Europe, or at least over one-half. 5. Alabama, more than two-thirds held abroad. 6. Kentucky, about one-half held abroad. 7. Mississippi, all held abroad, mostly in Holland. 8. Illinois, three-fourths held abroad. 9. Ohio, two-thirds held abroad. 10. Indiana, fully three-fourths held abroad. 11. California, mostly held in this country.

If these returns be substituted for those given in this table, the total of State bonds held by foreigners residing beyond the limits of the United States will be about one hundred and eleven millions, without counting the territorial bonds of Florida, amounting to several millions, or the arrears of interest of Florida, Arkansas, Texas, and Mississippi.

WRECKS AT SEA IN 1853.

The *New-York Times* publishes a list of the vessels and lives lost at sea during the last year, as follows:—

DATE.	VESSEL.	NO. LOST.
Jan. 6,	Schooner James C. Fisher.....	2
Jan. —,	Bark Louisa Emilia.....	40
Jan. —,	Brig Lily.....	32
Feb. 16,	Steamship Independence.....	129
Feb. —,	Brig Vintage.....	10
Feb. 24,	Schooner Mary E. Balch.....	2
Feb. —,	Ship Queen Victoria.....	55
March 4,	Schooner Splendid.....	2
March 4,	Schooner Narcissa.....	2
March 10,	Brig Sea Bird.....	3
April 1,	Iron steamer Duke of Sutherland.....	6
April 29,	Steamer Ocean Wave.....	28
May 15,	Steamship Monumental City.....	32
June 17,	Ship Nesree.....	340
July 20,	Ship Lady Evelyn.....	264
July 28,	Ship Charles Clark.....	5
Aug. 23,	Bark Meridian.....	4
Sept. 25,	Dutch steamer in Zuyder Zee.....	102
Sept. 25,	Iron Ship Camerton.....	36

Sept. 28, Schooner Pledge.....	5
Sept. 29, Ship Annie Jane.....	300
Oct. 23, Steamtug Ajax.....	5
Oct. 23, Schooner S. P. Burnham.....	5
Oct. —, Ship Liverpool.....	16
Nov. 28, Screw Steamship Marshall.....	150
Dec. 4, Schooner Henry Clay.....	1
Dec. 8, Revenue Cutter Hamilton.....	7
Dec. 24, Steamship San Francisco.....	150
Dec. 29, Clipper Ship Staffordshire.....	140
Dec. 29, Schooner Moselle.....	4
Dec. 29, Schooner Powell.....	3
Dec. 31, Steamer Pearl.....	18
Dec. —, Brig Hyperion.....	8

Total lives lost (33 vessels)..... 1,899

Add estimate for coasting vessels, &c..... 25

Aggregate mortality..... 1,924

NUMBER OF VESSELS.

Number of sea vessels lost during the year..... 110

Fishing smacks destroyed in gales..... 20

Total number of vessels destroyed..... 130

The San Francisco owed her wreck chiefly to the inefficiency of her engines. The Staffordshire struck a rock at night. The Pacific steamships S. S. Lewis, Independence and Tennessee, grounded and went to pieces—the Independence first running aground, and then burning to the water's edge.

The *St. Louis Republican*, in a paper upon the *silver and gold mines* of the Gila, and the *copper mines* of New-Mexico, says:—

Yesterday we had the opportunity of examining some specimens of gold brought in by Major Steen, of the United States dragoons, from the vicinity of the Copper Mines in New-Mexico, in the neighborhood of Fort Webster, where he has been stationed. The specimen is from surface washing, but sufficient to show that the precious metal exists there, and subsequent washings will doubtless prove its existence in larger quantities.

Major Steen has also a sample of the gold found on the river San Pedro, which empties into the Gila River, from the south, in the Mexican province of Sonora, near where the boundary line between the United States and Mexico, as projected by Mr. Bartlett, strikes the Gila. The San Pedro is the only stream entering the Gila from the south. Beyond the mountains are the ranches of San Bernardino and Santa Cruz, and on the other side of the San Pedro is Taos-Leon, places mentioned by Col. Cook in his expedition to California. It is from this mine that gold bullets used by the Indians are procured. Mr. Aubrey alludes to them, and Dr. Abadie, of the United States army, sent some of them to Major Walker of this city.

The major has also specimens of silver from the mines of Saint Andrews, which are supposed to be the richest that have yet been discovered. The specimens were obtained by melting the ore in an iron ladle in a common fire. The mines are in a northeast direction from Dona Ana, and about eighty miles from El Paso. The major says that the silver ore is smelted with as much ease and facility as the common galena.

He represents the whole country as abounding in mines of copper, iron, and lead, and only requiring the aid of capital and enterprise to make it the most productive section of the continent. Formerly the Indians concealed from the Mexicans and American traders the locality of their mines.

Major Steen, during his residence there, was fortunate enough to gain their confidence so far as to be shown the locality of several of their mines, and there he found the remains of the workings of the Jesuits many years ago.

In this connection the Major mentions another fact illustrative of the abundance of gold in that region. An Indian applied to him for clothing. The Major promised to furnish what he wanted if he would bring him gold from the Gila. The Indian replied that if he had known it he could have brought him "handfuls" from the late feast of the Gilenos, for it was plenty there. He went away, and in a few days returned with a pound or more. The Major being absent, the Indian sold it to an interpreter. Of him the Major obtained his sample. It is in large lumps or grains, and unlike the washings obtained in California. There can be no question that there is a mineral tract of country on the Gila that will soon attract a large population.

The following table of FREIGHTS and of SHIP-BUILDING in the United States was prepared by Thomas P. Kettell, of New-York:—

FREIGHT—HIGHEST, LOWEST, AND AVERAGE FOR FLOUR AND GRAIN TO LIVERPOOL FOR THE LAST SEVEN YEARS, AT THE PORT OF NEW-YORK.

Flour per barrel.						Wheat per bushel.					
Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1846.....5 0	1 9	2 8	1846.....1 3	0 7	0 9½	1846.....1 3	0 7	0 9½	1846.....1 3	0 7	0 9½
1847.....8 9	1 6	3 9	1847.....2 4	0 5	1 1	1847.....2 4	0 5	1 1	1847.....2 4	0 5	1 1
1848.....2 6	1 0	1 8	1848.....0 8	0 4	0 6	1848.....0 8	0 4	0 6	1848.....0 8	0 4	0 6
1849.....2 3	1 3	1 7½	1849.....0 7	0 3	0 5½	1849.....0 7	0 3	0 5½	1849.....0 7	0 3	0 5½
1850.....1 9	0 9	1 3½	1850.....0 6	0 3	0 4	1850.....0 6	0 3	0 4	1850.....0 6	0 3	0 4
1851.....1 9	0 8	1 1½	1851.....0 6	0 3	0 4½	1851.....0 6	0 3	0 4½	1851.....0 6	0 3	0 4½
1852.....3 6	0 9	1 4½	1852.....0 6	0 3	0 4½	1852.....0 6	0 3	0 4½	1852.....0 6	0 3	0 4½
1853.....4 0	1 7	2 9	1853.....1 3	0 5	0 10	1853.....1 3	0 5	0 10	1853.....1 3	0 5	0 10

VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES.

Class of Vessels.						Total No. built.				
Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Ships & Canal boats.	Steamers.	Total No. built.	1853. Total tonnage.	1852. Total tonnage.	1851. Total tonnage.	1850. Total tonnage.	Total tonnage.
Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Maine.....133	70	183	10	7	350	118,916	110,047	77,698	91,211	6,914
N. Hamps.....9	1	1	—	—	10	8,666	9,515	5,159	6,914	77
Vermont.....	—	—	—	—	—	218	—	561	—	—
Mass.....73	1	126	3	2	203	83,015	48,001	41,323	35,836	3,587
R. Island.....6	—	5	—	—	11	3,170	3,201	3,056	4,519	—
Connecticut.....4	—	37	91	5	67	9,022	9,034	3,414	—	—
New-York.....21	6	85	103	74	289	83,224	72,072	76,606	58,342	6,901
New-Jersey.....	—	30	22	6	58	7,107	3,963	5,869	—	—
Penn.....1	4	28	102	50	191	31,539	31,220	28,623	21,409	1,848
Delaware.....	1	11	19	2	33	4,435	2,923	2,058	1,848	—
Maryland.....15	9	97	12	1	122	16,901	18,158	18,027	15,964	288
Dia. of Col.....	—	—	42	—	—	2,743	1,995	4,439	—	—
Virginia.....3	1	11	14	11	40	6,599	3,799	1,778	3,584	2,651
N. Carolina.....	1	10	3	2	22	1,746	2,228	1,794	2,651	683
S. Carolina.....	—	24	13	1	38	1,993	939	683	1,592	—
Georgia.....	—	—	—	—	—	322	—	2,369	—	—
Louisiana.....	—	9	4	4	17	1,346	1,284	2,337	—	—
Tennessee.....	—	—	1	—	1	45	—	225	—	—
Kentucky.....	—	—	1	20	20	8,592	7,312	8,601	1,353	—
Missouri.....	—	1	10	11	22	3,583	2,133	2,066	1,091	—
Illinois.....	—	7	2	—	9	1,156	1,217	313	—	—
Wisconsin.....1	1	10	2	—	14	2,422	558	76	5,214	—
Ohio.....4	—	29	23	35	60	21,213	18,329	6,035	2,001	—
Michigan.....	1	29	—	14	35	4,304	2,639	1,365	122	—
California.....	—	—	—	2	2	150	—	69	—	—
Indiana.....	—	—	—	9	9	2,453	—	354	105	—
Texas.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	375	113	—
Alabama.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	79	—
Florida.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total.....269	95	681	294	272	1,711	425,572	351,493	298,283	272,918	—

Art. X.—PROMOTION OF AGRICULTURE BY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

AN AGRICULTURAL BUREAU.

THE National Agricultural Society, which met lately in Washington, supported by a large vote the establishment of another regular Department of the government, like that of the Navy or the Interior, to be called the "Department of Agriculture." The proposition we regarded unwise. The remarks which follow upon a "Bureau of Agriculture" are made by Mr. Newton, of Ohio.

From 1796 to the present time, the subject of an Agricultural Board, or Bureau, has been an object of Executive consideration and recommendation to the National Legislature; and yet little, formally, and nothing effectively, has been done. While all our other interests and relations have been sedulously guarded and liberally patronized, agriculture, the foundation on which all others rest, and the source from which all others flow, and the fountain from which all others are sustained and increased, has been left to struggle alone, and not acknowledged in the great family of national relationship.

From that period to the present, we have increased in numbers with greater rapidity than any other nation or people—advancing from less than four millions to nearly twenty-five millions—possessing a territory extending from ocean to ocean and from a tropical sun to near the polar region, embracing all the various climates, soils, minerals and vegetable productions of the whole earth. Inhabited by a people from all nations, and of all kindreds and castes, with intelligence and enterprise more generally disseminated than any other people on earth; yet, lamentable as it is, in national agricultural science, patronage, and attention, we are behind any other enlightened nation under Heaven.

Our soil is more generally adapted to agriculture, and more of our people engage in that pursuit, than in any other country. It was the first—it is the chief and general employment of our inhabitants, and more than eighteen millions are engaged in its occupation. The freedom and facility to acquire the ownership of the soil, is that which gives us a prominence over any other people. There is a prominence in the absolute ownership of the soil, and its general occupation by our citizens, that gives us a more general and important national character than any other nation.

If America is guided by wisdom and patriotism, forty years hence she will probably contain more absolute freeholders than all the world besides. Improvement of our national agriculture is the strongest bond of union with which the nation can encircle its territory. Its neglect is but too legible in this aspect. While other countries are under the necessity of furnishing scenes of amusement, with which to employ their inhabitants, we employ ourselves in cultivating the soil.

Nature is a good agriculturist; she has guided her citizens, and not this nation her subjects. She fits the soil, originally, with all the properties necessary for the growth of all the plants. And from the large quantities of virgin soil in almost all parts of our extended country, that have been from our earliest history, and still are being brought into actual occupation and improvement, our agricultural products have been so large, that the public mind has been lulled into apathy and indifference as to the necessity or means of renovating old and dilapidated soils, or of increasing the aggregate amount of our products.

This morbid national feeling is having a deleterious influence upon us nationally and individually. As a consequence, land in America is not worth half what it should be, and otherwise would be, if the standard of agriculture was elevated. Americans do not become farmers from choice, but from necessity, and for want of other adequate employments. Sons of wealthy and influential men loathe the farm as they would a prison. It is the drudge of youth, and the servant of old age, after ambition has been cloyed and satisfied. According to the prevailing fashion and popular feeling, the farm furnishes few inducements for the youthful aspirant for national honors and preferment.

While every other profession and calling, from the highest to the most inconsiderable doorkeeper in the land, is sought after and hunted up, with an avidity that is truly surprising—professions, trading, offices, and agencies, are among the most fashionable employments of the age; yet how few, compared with the number of those engaged in those pursuits, ever arrive at any eminence or competency for themselves or families!

The tenure by which most of these are held and enjoyed is so transient and fugitive, that no permanent preparation can be made for home and its enjoyments. The employment of the families of those engaged in these temporary pursuits are so ephemeral, that they are unfitted for the substantial business of life—and more especially for those adverse circumstances that so frequently occur.

If the nation wish to people her farms with skilful and scientific farmers, elevate her standard; give her a name and a place, and an independent position among our national palaces, where the Father of our Country strove with his own hands to place her, and where he most earnestly recommended the nation to place her, and not turn her off with the crumbs that fall from another's table.

Methinks I see him yonder, over the way, with the manuscript of his plan in hand, and the wisdom of his countenance guiding our deliberations in perfecting his most favored object.

Remember, I beseech you, this great and practical truth, that whatever emanates from the nation, has a national influence, and a national example, and do not turn us off with the inhospitable excuse that another and inferior jurisdiction may do this, and not the nation. Through our whole history, the nation's voice has never been heard in an effective effort to recognize agriculture, by a separate institution, or to throw around it any of the Governmental patronage or influence, or to clothe it with science and skill, so that its national honors may be borne and enjoyed by its occupants.

From General Washington down to the present Chief Magistrate, every recommendation to establish a board for its elevation and improvement has been entirely neglected.

Every report from committees upon this subject has been permitted to sleep upon the table, and not even a discussion provoked.

The great and primary object of this bureau is to elevate the social condition of the agriculturist, and increase his means and facilities for improvement. That this is necessary, all will admit. We need not go beyond our Hall to see how few farmers are selected as national legislators. Look to your professions and mechanics, and see their skill and productions; then cast the mind of the nation, in the person of its representatives, over the country; let each Congressional district be examined, and see how few model farms are to be found, and how few prize articles possessed. See how few farms that may not be greatly improved, in price, value and productions. Look to your agricultural products that are sent abroad, and see how many are branded as unmerchantable, or second rate, and compare the general reputation they bear abroad with our mechanical inventions and improvements, and the answer can better be understood than expressed. It is the

sentiment of every patriot, that "it should be the study of every statesman, and the primary object of every legislator, to elevate the agricultural interest." It can never be done in any other way than by the action of the nation; it never has been in any other country, and never will be in this. There are in all revivals, religious or political, times of declension, and unless there is some general power above and below to guide and sustain them, they will fade away. Here the science can be concentrated and diffused by the national Representatives. Let the farming interest see that the General Government will give them any aid in this great movement for advancement, and you will electrify all their efforts, and warm into life thousands of others. Repulse it, and you freeze that which is now alive.

I have said that agriculture was the first employment of our citizens. General Washington, the Father of our Country, was a practical farmer. As early as 1786, we find him engaged in sending abroad for seeds and implements of husbandry. On the 6th of August, of that year, in writing to Arthur Young, of England, he says:

"I shall take the liberty, in this place, to observe, that some years ago, from a description or recommendation of what was then called the Rotherham, or patent plough, I sent to England for one of them; and, till it began to wear, and was ruined by a country smith, no plough could have done better work, or appeared to have gone easier with two horses."

In the same communication, he says:

"Agriculture has ever been among the most favorite amusements of my life, though I never possessed much skill in the art.

"The system of agriculture, if the epithet of system can be applied to it, which is in use in this part of the United States, is as unproductive to the practitioners as it is ruinous to the land-holders. *Yet it is pertinaciously adhered to.*"

On the first of November, 1787, in another letter to the same man, he says:

"Our lands, as I mentioned in my first letter to you, were originally very good, but use and abuse have made them quite otherwise."

In the same letter, he enters into a particular description of the price of products. "Wheat," he says, "for the last four years has been worth four shillings sterling by the bushel; rye, two shillings and fourpence; oats, one shilling and sixpence," and gives the price of a great variety of other articles. To Mr. Young, December 4th, 1788, he says:

"I cannot help thinking, that improving our breed of sheep would be one of the most profitable speculations we could undertake. Though we do not feed them on leaves, as you say they do in some parts of France, yet we cannot want for pasture enough suitable for them. I am glad to find you are likely to succeed in propagating the Spanish breed of sheep in England, and that the wool does not degenerate, for the multiplication of useful animals is a common blessing to mankind."

Again he says:

"I have a prospect of introducing into this country a very excellent race of animals also, by means of the liberality of the King of Spain. One of the jacks he was pleased to send me is about fifteen hands high, his body and limbs very large in proportion to his height; and the mules I have had from him appear to be extremely well formed for business. I have likewise a jack and two jennets from Malta, of a good size, which the Marquis de La Fayette sent me. From these I hope to secure a race of extraordinary goodness, which will stock the country. Their longevity and cheap keeping will be circumstances much in their favor. I am convinced from the little experiments I have made with ordinary mules, which

perform as much labor, with vastly less feeding, than horses, that those of a superior quality will be the best cattle we can employ for the harness; and, indeed, in a few years, I intend to drive no other in my carriage, having appropriated upwards of twenty of my best mares to breeding them."

To the same man, under date 5th December, 1791, he says:

"The English farmer must entertain a contemptible opinion of our husbandry, or a horrid idea of our land, when he is to be informed that not more than eight or ten bushels of wheat is the yield of an acre."

To cure these evils, so general and so much to be deprecated, and to introduce the advantages and improvements necessary and desirable, while President in 1791, he issued a circular to many of the most experienced and influential men in the business of agriculture, in the States of New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, among whom were Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton, to collect statistics as to the value of land, its culture, the kind of articles produced, and their quality and price. The information was extensively communicated, and left on record for the information and imitation of those who may come after him. "This kind of general and important information is one great object now sought by this Board." In his correspondence with Sir John Sinclair, also of England, under date July 20th, 1794, he says:

"I know of no pursuit in which more real and important services can be rendered to any country than by improving its agriculture, its breed of useful animals, and other branches of a husbandman's cares; nor can I conceive any plan more conducive to this end, than the one you have introduced for bringing to view the actual state of them in all parts of the kingdom, by which good and bad habits are exhibited in a manner too plain to be misconstrued."

Again he says, under the same date:

"It will be some time, I fear, before an agricultural society, with Congressional aids, will be established in this country. We must walk, as others have done, before we can run. Small societies must prepare the way for greater; but, with the lights before us, I hope we shall not be so long in maturation as other nations have been."

Here we have his prophetic vision clearly expressed, as early as 1794, after the lapse of nearly sixty years, fulfilled by smaller societies moving the nation to acquiesce in these movements for improvement.

Again, in the same letter, he gives an illustration of his improvement:

"Nor is the wool of our sheep inferior to that of your common ones—as a proof: after the peace of Paris, in 1783, and my return to the occupation of a farmer, I paid particular attention to my breed of sheep, (of which I usually keep about seven or eight hundred,) by which attention, at the shearing of 1789, the fleeces yielded me the average quantity of five and a quarter pounds of wool."

Again, in writing on the 10th of July, 1795, to Mr. Sinclair, and speaking of their Board of Agriculture, he says:

"From the first intimation you were pleased to give me of this institution, I conceived the most favorable ideas of its utility; and the more I have seen and reflected on the plan since, the more I am convinced of its importance, in a national point of view, not only to your own country, but to all others which are not too much attached to old and bad habits to forsake them, and to new countries that are just beginning to form systems for the improvement of their husbandry."

Here I digress from his correspondence for a short time, to consider the messages immediately preceding his recommendation to Congress to establish a Board. In his third annual message, 25th October, 1791, he says:

"Your own observation, in your respective situations, will have satisfied you of the progressive state of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and navigation."

Again, in his message of 8th December, 1795, he says:

"Our agriculture, commerce, and manufactures are flourishing."

Always placing agriculture in the front rank, with a mind well stored with knowledge and experience, by practical agriculture, as well as by extensive correspondence with men of science and experience in the practical operations of national Boards. On the 7th of December, 1796, in his eighth and last annual message, he says:

"It will not be doubted that, with reference to either national or individual welfare, agriculture is of primary importance. In proportion as nations advance in population and other circumstances of maturity, this truth becomes more apparent, and renders the cultivation of the soil more and more an object of public patronage. Institutions for promoting it grow up, supported by the public purse—and to what object can it be dedicated with greater propriety? Among the means which have been employed to this end, none have been attended with greater success than the establishment of Boards, composed of proper characters, charged with collecting and diffusing information, and enabled, by premiums and small pecuniary aids, to encourage and assist a spirit of discovery and improvement, by stimulating to enterprise and experiment, and by drawing to a common centre the results everywhere of individual skill and observation, and spreading them thence over the whole nation. Experience, accordingly, hath shown that they are very cheap instruments of immense national benefit."

This sentence in the last annual message of General Washington, is the last official sentiment upon this subject expressed by one whom the united voice of the world consent to call one of the greatest men the world ever produced, taking all the relations of life—one whom every American is proud to call the Father of his Country, and whom all have consented to place before us as a perpetual monitor—one whose Farewell Address (pronounced in September, before this sentiment was uttered) all agree is a textbook for all time after. How, may I not ask, has this sentiment (full of wisdom, experience, and practical utility) been considered and treated? I answer, entirely neglected for more than half a century; and why, I will by and by give an answer in his own words.

On the 11th of January after this message, Judge Swift, of Connecticut, to whom was referred the message of the President, made a report, setting forth the great advantages the people of America have over the people of other countries, by being the fee-simple owners of their land; and if the business of agriculture was encouraged and patronized by the government, we should become the most enlightened nation upon that subject. He also sets forth that many agricultural societies have been formed throughout the United States, but were on too limited a scale to answer the purpose for the United States, and recommended that there be a national agricultural society formed, and from it a Board selected, giving his plan in detail; and upon this report no action was had by Congress. On the 6th of March of the same year, (1797,) General Washington writes again to Mr. Sinclair, as follows:

"Under the circumstances here mentioned, I should not have troubled you at this time with so short a letter, but for the purpose of accompanying it with two or three pamphlets on the subject of agriculture; one of which treats more extensively on gypsum as a manure than any I have seen before. The other two will only serve to show that essays of similar kind are making in this infant country."

"I am sorry to add, that nothing final in Congress has been decided respecting the institution of a National Board of Agriculture, recommended by me at the opening of the session. But this did not, I believe, proceed from any disinclina-

tion to the measure, but from their limited sitting, and a pressure of what they conceived more important business. I think it highly probable that next session will bring this matter to maturity."

The great object I have in introducing this correspondence is, to show at one view his thorough knowledge of the plan recommended, and to see if this House will regard his opinions upon this subject as entitled to the same weight they have upon the great and exciting subject now occupying the public mind; and if I fail in this, it will console and encourage the enterprising farmer to persevere in his efforts to improve the soil and the domestic animals of the country, and to strive to elevate the farming interest to its proper level; and to point the youth of the country to the soil, as the great fountain of wealth, honor, and fame.

Here he sets forth the reason a Board was not formed, for he says: "It did not arise, as I suppose, from any disinclination to the measure, but their limited sitting, and the pressure of what they conceived more important business." Here, again, is a clear expression, that he regarded that as the most important business; and Congress had omitted it, because they supposed they had more important things to do. He says: "He supposed the next session would perfect it." He continued his correspondence with Mr. Sinclair upon the same subject, down to a few days before the meeting of the next Congress, and that session passed over and nothing done; and about the time of the next Congress, 1799, he died, and with him the advocate of the farmer. Our subsequent history is but that of a gigantic nation, spreading its wings over most of the Western hemisphere, without stopping to consider the details of policy by which we can secure, perpetuate, and improve that which we have, but to get more and more. While excitement and enterprise swell every heart, and animate every legislative body, can we not profitably pause for a few moments, to consider the details of that policy, so thoroughly studied, practised, understood, and earnestly recommended by one who, through life, guided, sustained, and conducted us from a little band of patriots, to a great and model nation?

Mr. Jefferson, in his sixth annual message, recommends a national establishment for education. He uses this language:

"Not that it would be proposed to take its ordinary branches out of the hands of private enterprise, which manage so much better all the concerns to which it is equal; but a public institution can alone supply those sciences which, though rarely called for, are yet necessary to complete the circle, all the parts of which contribute to the improvement of the country, and some of them to its preservation."

Mr. Madison, in his sixth annual message, says:

"The present is a favorable season, also, for bringing again into view the establishment of a national seminary of learning within the District of Columbia, and with means drawn from the property therein, subject to the authority of the General Government. Such an institution claims the patronage of Congress, as a monument of their solicitude for the advancement of knowledge, without which the blessings of liberty cannot be fully enjoyed or long preserved."

Mr. Monroe, in his second message, says:

"The conduct of the government in what relates to foreign powers is always an object of the highest importance to the nation. Its agriculture, commerce, manufactures, fisheries, revenue—in short, its peace, may all be affected by it. Attention is therefore due to this subject."

Mr. Adams, in his fourth annual message, recommends attention to agriculture, in conjunction with commerce and other interests.

The opinions entertained by Presidents succeeding Mr. Adams, down to

the time of Mr. Polk, I have not the time to examine critically, in relation to their particular views, further than to copy a single sentence of President Jackson, in the commencement of his third annual message :

"Agriculture, the first and most important occupation of man, has compensated the labors of the husbandman with plentiful crops of all the varied products of our extensive country."

President Polk, in his fourth annual message, says :

"With the repeal of the prohibitory and restrictive duties of the act of 1842, the great and important interests of agriculture, which had been not only too much neglected, but actually taxed, under the protective policy, for the benefit of other interests, have been relieved of the burdens which that policy imposed on them ; and our farmers and planters, under the more just and liberal commercial policy, are finding new and profitable markets abroad for their augmented products."

That part of the President's Message was referred to the Committee on Agriculture ; and a very full report emanated from that Committee, showing clearly that the farming interest had received no aid at all under the law of 1846, over that of 1842. This subject I cannot now consider, and all I introduce it for is to show his opinion, that that interest had been too long neglected.

The agricultural societies that sprung up during the life of General Washington, died away at his death, and, within the last few years, have been again revived and increased ; the particulars of which I will by and by show, and with them the public attention again called to the original object of General Washington.

What a happy thing it is for this government, that the crowded page of history, after nearly sixty years, can be reviewed with so much satisfaction and profit !

President Taylor, in his annual message of December, 1849, called the attention of Congress directly to this subject, in the following manner :

"No direct aid has been given by the General Government to the improvement of agriculture, except by the expenditure of small sums for the collection and publication of agricultural statistics, and for some chemical analyses, which have been thus far paid for out of the patent fund. This aid is, in my opinion, wholly inadequate. To give to this leading branch of American industry the encouragement which it merits, I respectfully recommend the establishment of an agricultural bureau, to be connected with the Department of the Interior. To elevate the social condition of the agriculturist, to increase his prosperity, and to extend his means of usefulness to his country, by multiplying his sources of information, should be the study of every statesman, and a primary object with ever legislator."

Upon this message, and resolutions of several State Legislatures, Vermont, New-York, (nearly or quite unanimous,) Massachusetts, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, Alabama, and State Boards of Ohio and New-York, and of agricultural societies, and also petitions extensively from individuals, a bill from the minority of the Committee upon Agriculture was presented to the House, on the 31st of July, 1850, to establish an agricultural bureau, and laid upon the table ; and there it remained, and was never called up. And from all this mass of evidence, and the weight of its influence, and the demands and wants of more than *eighteen millions* of people—this little bill, from the minority of the Committee, is the *product*, and the only product. May not the farmers of the country be constrained to cry out, "Our voice is not heard ; our prayers are not regarded ; our interests are passed over with too much indifference ?"

Within the last two years, that prophetic declaration of General Washing-

ton, that smaller societies must move the nation, to which I before referred, is being more strongly demonstrated. New-York has a State society, and from seventy to eighty county societies. Pennsylvania has from twelve to twenty county societies, and many grouped together. Ohio has a State society, and seventy county societies. Massachusetts has twelve societies, and in many of these societies several counties together. Michigan has twenty county societies. Indiana, a State society. Kentucky, five county societies. Georgia, a State society, and fifteen county societies. South Carolina has six county societies. Virginia has a State society, and three county societies. Maryland, a State society, and four county societies. Vermont, a State society, and four county societies, and was the first State to ask us to establish a National Board. New-Hampshire, a State society, and eight or nine county societies, and also asked Congress to establish a board. Connecticut, a number of county societies. Rhode Island has also passed resolutions asking Congress to establish a Board. Maine has six county societies. Iowa, a State society, and six or eight county societies. Wisconsin, a State society. Illinois, three county societies. Tennessee has some county societies, and two years since unanimously recommended a National Board. Florida has passed a resolution for a National Board. Louisiana, in 1848, passed a law for a bureau.

President Fillmore, in full view of the increasing agricultural interests of the country, and with great practical wisdom, on the 2d day of December, 1850, made the following recommendation:—

“More than three-fourths of our population are engaged in the cultivation of the soil. The commercial, manufacturing, and navigating interests are all, to a great extent, dependent on the agricultural. It is, therefore, the most important interest of the nation, and has a just claim to the fostering care and protection of the government, so far as they can be extended consistently with the provisions of the Constitution. As this cannot be done by the ordinary modes of legislation, I respectfully recommend the establishment of an agricultural bureau, to be charged with the duty of giving to this leading branch of American industry the encouragement which it so well deserves. In view of the immense mineral resources of our country, provision should also be made for the employment of a competent mineralogist and chemist, who should be required, under the direction of the head of the bureau, to collect specimens of the various minerals of our country, and to ascertain, by careful analyses, their respective elements and properties, and their adaptation to useful purposes. He should also be required to examine and report upon the qualities of different soils, and the manures best calculated to improve their productiveness. By publishing the results of such experiments, with suitable explanations, and by the collection and distribution of rare seeds and plants, with instructions as to the best system of cultivation, much may be done to promote this great national interest.”

Upon this message last year in the House, no bill was reported, or action had. In the Senate a bill was reported, but no action.

Secretaries Ewing and Stuart, in their annual reports, both strongly recommend a board.

At this Session, President Fillmore again makes the following recommendation:—

“Agriculture may justly be regarded as the great interest of our people. Four-fifths of our active population are employed in the cultivation of the soil, and the expansion of our settlements over new territory is daily adding to the number of those engaged in that vocation. Justice and sound policy, therefore, alike require that the government should use all the means authorized by the Constitution to promote the interests and welfare of that important class of our fellow-citizens. And yet it is a singular fact that, whilst the manufacturing and commercial interests have engaged the attention of Congress during a large portion of every session, and our statutes abound in provisions for their protection and encouragement,

little has yet been done directly for the advancement of agriculture. It is time that this reproach to our legislation should be removed; and I sincerely hope that the present Congress will not close their labors without adopting efficient means to supply the omissions of those who have preceded them.

"An agricultural bureau, charged with the duty of collecting and disseminating correct information as to the best modes of cultivation, and of the most effectual means of preserving and restoring the fertility of the soil, and of procuring and distributing seeds and plants and other vegetable productions, with instructions in regard to the soil, climate, and treatment best adapted to their growth, could not fail to be, in the language of Washington, in his last annual message to Congress, a 'very cheap instrument of immense national benefit.'"

And is it not due to his official relation, after his repeated recommendation, that we act either for or against it?—and which way? is the question.

General Washington, Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Madison, Mr. Monroe, and Mr. Adams, for a period of thirty-six years consecutively, all recommended an improvement of agriculture, or national schools; and the same principles and powers are involved in each of their recommendations, and no one of the subsequent presidents advising against it; Mr. Taylor and Mr. Fillmore strongly recommending, and their secretaries; the resolutions of legislatures, petitions of agricultural societies and of the people, and the interest of eighteen millions of our inhabitants, yea, of the whole, I ask, if all this combined is entitled to any attention, to any consideration? It has received but very little. But I am told there is a patent office, and the farmers are abundantly enlightened with the crumbs that fall from its table. The patent office, until 1831, during General Jackson's administration, when he called Mr. Ellsworth to it, was a burlesque, and is now, upon farming, compared with the wants of this great nation. Mr. Ellsworth was a practical farmer; but he had all to do, and nothing to do with. He was the first in that office to give any attention to agriculture. But the first appropriation for that object was in 1839, \$1,000, for collecting agricultural statistics; in 1842, \$1,000; in 1843, \$2,000; in 1844, \$2,000; in 1845, \$3,000; in 1847, \$3,000; in 1848, \$3,500; in 1849, \$3,500; in 1850, \$4,500; in 1851, \$5,500;—total \$29,000 in seventy-five years. The cost of printing is not included, and cannot be ascertained, as the report of the Commissioner was all published in one volume until the last two years. What can this small pittance do for this great nation? Scarcely enough in any one year to defray the ordinary expenses of correspondence.

The fund is to be distributed by the Commissioner of Patents, who is not selected for his knowledge of agriculture, (whose main business is of a different character, and more than he can do,) and may or may not be acquainted with it. The business must therefore be done by an unaccredited agent. Where is our agricultural department? Pent up in the cellar of the patent office, and cannot be found at midday without a candle; and when found, a single clerk, struggling to get up the report. When it is up and out, there are but four hundred volumes for each Congressional district of one hundred thousand population, and that a reading people; and there is more call for this document than all others of a public character, and fast gaining in reputation from editors over the Union, and the public generally, inadequate as it is.

There is no country where the mind is so inquisitive and information so generally desired and possessed as in America. Travel over the whole world and return, and the truth is seen and felt more palpably. To us the masses of the world are looking for improvement, physically and morally, and for it they seek us in thousands daily. In the United States there are, but about thirty agricultural periodicals published, and there are five hundred thousand copies taken and read by the people—a mere drop to the ocean. There are agricultural journals in the State of New-York that have

six times greater circulation than any single paper of the kind in Europe. This only shows how great the thirst we ought to assist in gratifying. In America there is not an agricultural school aided or patronized by the government; and, in fact, it may be said, there is none at all. Some are just beginning to struggle for life, but the faint, feeble feeling of the General Government infuses itself into every part of its great family, and paralyzes the whole body. There is not what may be regarded as a text-book in any branch of agriculture or rural economy in America.

Compare what America as a nation has done with what has been done by other nations. I can but glance at it. Russia has in all sixty-eight schools and colleges. She has an agricultural institution with forty college buildings, occupying three thousand acres of land, and attended by several thousand students. The Agricultural Society of St. Petersburg was established by Queen Catharine. There are under the patronage of the French government seventy school farms, besides five first-class colleges, in which professors are employed to lecture on botany, zoology, chemistry, agriculture, and the treatment of diseases in cattle; on the culture of woods, forests, &c. These are supported throughout the country. National establishments for the improvement of breeds of stock, and colleges for the education of veterinary surgeons, and investigating the uses of all discoveries contemplated for agricultural improvement. The government expend in three veterinary schools a year for instruction, 754,200 francs; for instruction in agriculture, 2,731,468 francs; for encouragement in agriculture, 700,000 francs; for improvement in the breeds of horses and science connected with it alone, 1,776,400 francs. The requirements for admission into these veterinary schools are as follows: The applicant must be not less than seventeen years of age, and not over twenty-five, and have the following qualifications: to be able to forge a horse or ox shoe after two heatings—pass an examination in the French language, arithmetic, and geography, and after four years' study, is permitted to practise veterinary surgery, and receive a diploma. In Belgium great attention is paid to the subject. There are a hundred agricultural schools or colleges established by the government—a high school of veterinary surgery. The science of agriculture is the most fashionable in the kingdom. They have their palaces furnished more or less with rare specimens of the products of the land, and are farmed like a garden. These facts I know, having travelled over considerable part of that country. In Saxony they have five schools; in Bavaria, thirty-five; in Wurtemberg, seven; in Austria, thirty-three; in Prussia, thirty-two; in Italy, two; in Scotland, two; in Ireland, sixty-three. The one at Glasnevin, near Dublin, I visited. It now consists of one hundred and twenty-eight acres of good land, and convenient buildings, and are about to add to their farm, and increase their buildings so as to accommodate one hundred or more students. With the teacher, Mr. Donaghy, I became acquainted. He is an intelligent, practical man. With him I viewed the farm, and their farming and buildings, &c., and it is carried on very successfully. These schools are doing more for Ireland than any other attention the government is giving them. They have colleges and agricultural schools in England sustained by the government—some four or five with large farms attached to them—where all the sciences connected with the general business are taught with great perfection, and millions of money each year invested in the general science of agriculture by the nation. It is an investment, and not an expenditure. Other countries are engaged in the same business, but I cannot go further into detail. Sufficient is said to draw a parallel between their views and ours. Abroad they invest millions each year in a country not larger than an average of our States. Here, in all our country, for seventy-five years, for the general object we have expended \$29,000.

I come now to consider the provisions of the bill proposed by your committee. We present what we supposed could be passed rather than what the capacity and wants of the country in all respects required. It is in the most unexceptionable shape we could devise and mature.

The first section provides that there shall be established, at the seat of Government of the United States, an agricultural bureau, the head of which shall be called "the Commissioner of Agriculture," whose term shall be four years, appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, and shall receive a yearly salary of \$3,000.

The second section provides that the Commissioner shall collect agricultural statistics; procure and distribute valuable grains, seeds, cuttings, buds, and tubers; procure and put in operation a chemical laboratory at a cost not exceeding \$2,000, and cause to be made all desirable analyses of minerals and mineral waters, and such as relate to the composition and improvement of soils, and to collect information of the same, and of the proportions and uses of soils; feeding of domestic animals; preparation and preservation of provisions and breadstuffs; the culture of cotton, rice, corn, wheat, flax, hemp, and sugar, and such manufactures as may be directly connected with agriculture and arise immediately out of agricultural products; and to prepare and make, annually, a full report to Congress, containing an account of such experiments as may have been made, and such useful information as he may have obtained in the duties of his office; and all the duties appertaining to agriculture shall be transferred from the patent office to this.

The third section provides that there shall be appointed by the Commissioner a chemist, at a salary of \$2,000; a chief clerk, at a salary of \$1,600; one recording clerk, \$1,000; and one messenger, \$750 a year.

Here is a bill as simple and plain as the elements of our government, as express and explicit as language can make it in all its details, and embracing an outlay of \$10,350. The general policy of the nation appears to be agricultural rather than manufacturing; to buy our merchandise rather than to make it. Many of those who have been engaged in manufacturing must turn their attention to agriculture for want of other business. It is the main business in which foreigners, as they come to our country, can engage. Our new country is being opened and settled rapidly with enterprising farmers.

There is a general increased attention to agriculture within the last few years over the world. More has been done in Europe in six years than has been in twenty before to improve it; more in America in five years past than in forty-five before. Since the present session began, four States have passed resolutions, almost unanimous, as I am informed, asking this organization—Florida, New-Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Indiana.

The present proposition is not a new principle, but only an improvement upon our present policy. Last year, \$5,500 was appropriated; now we only ask the appropriation to be distributed by an accredited agent. Every member of this House, who has or will bestow any attention to the manner in which the business is now done, can but see that some improvement is necessary. The first and most obvious one would appear to be, a disconnection from the Patent Office. It does not appear to have any more necessary connection with it than it would have with the War or Navy Office.

All communications upon this business are addressed to the Patent Office, and from the vast amount of the business of that office, these communications can receive only a passing and incidental attention, and passed to the clerk of agriculture, who is only temporarily employed to do the business. He may be only engaged for one month, or for six, or for twelve. The appropriation is only for a year, and it may end entirely at the end of the year. There may be twelve different clerks employed in the year, and

each one have a different mode of doing the business. No method or system is required, and no one has any object or credit to make it systematic and methodical. Detach it from its present connection, and you necessarily require that the duties be defined, and that some one take charge. It is objected by some that the General Government should not interfere, for it belongs to the States. The States refuse with precisely the same reason and force that induce the Government to decline, and say that it does not belong to them, but individuals should do it. Individuals refuse, because the States and General Government refuse, and there is nothing done. There is not a township in the United States where an improvement connected with agriculture is proposed, that a majority of the farmers would not refuse co-operation also, from the influence the national negative would have. Such is a nation's influence, and such its examples upon the people; and has been through our whole history. The science of agriculture sprang up in the days of Washington, Jefferson, Swift, and others, and struggled for a common head and a common fountain, that might supply all the streams of commerce and want over the land, and for want of it withered away. It has sprung up since, and strove for the same object, and died away from the same cause. It is now springing up again, and extending as our common country has extended and increased, and as our common wants multiply and extend—is making a vigorous effort, and calling loud, long, and often, upon the nation for this common head, this common fountain; and if it is repulsed and fail, its fate will be the same, yea, worse, for it is loaded with the weight of many defeats, and the wails of many millions.

Nations stand to States and individuals as parents do to their offspring; and with us this relation is exceedingly forcible, numerous and endearing; for our children are increasing as the sands of the sea, and seem to be covering the whole earth. Already their cries for aid, protection, and instruction reach us from the Rocky Mountains. This relation imposes reciprocal duties and obligations from one to the other. From us to our offspring, aid, protection, and instruction, and from them to us fidelity. And may this relation, through all time, be preserved, cherished, and cemented. The children, yes, the children of this great agricultural family ask, yea, importune the parent, the nation, for a head, for a fountain, to which they can look for instruction, science, and wisdom, to guide them in their infancy, and sustain them in old age. Do not repel us with the negative—that the family is numerous, the wants many, and the expenses great. We reply, you begat us, and bear us; you have scattered us over the face of the earth, to you alone can we look, and to you will we cling. Grant the prayer, and the protection is visible, and the fidelity enduring. But I am told agriculture should be free, unprotected, untaught. These terms free, freedom, and free trade, in their latitudinous and indiscriminate use, are as unmeaning and suicidal as it would be for a nation to let loose and unbridle all the passions and propensities of her subjects, and the reins of her government; or for a parent to say to his child, at its birth, go, be free to your maturity; or for the agriculturist to dig out the bowels of the earth and return nothing to it, and turn it off because it is worn out. No, this will never do. The agriculturist asks for nothing that interferes with the general well-digested views of any member of this body. We only ask for the scientific influence and power of the Government, to aid and direct all our various avenues of freedom and enterprise away from the shoals and quicksands that beset our path, without a chart or compass. We propose only to furnish at the seat of Government, where all our nation centres, where all other nations centre to transact business, a scientific organ or agent of our own creation, to analyze our soil and accumulate information in the manner we propose, and send it over the country broadcast, in the shape of reports, for the benefit and improvement of the masses.

Permit me to give a single instance of the result of analyzing soils in our immediate vicinity, which I got from the public journals, and from Mr. Johnson himself.

Hon. Reverdy Johnson, in 1849, bought a farm near Baltimore, so poor that the last crop of corn would not yield a peck to the acre, and all plants and vegetables growing upon the two hundred acres would not make a load of manure. He applied to a chemist, who analyzed the soil and found all the elements of fertility except phosphoric acid, and no trace of that. He recommended a preparation of bones, which was applied at an expense of ten dollars an acre. Health was restored to the deserted soil, and the next crop was twenty-nine bushels of wheat to the acre. That soil is of a similar character to all the poor and partially deserted soil about this region. Who knows, and who may not rationally infer from this single example, that your chemist in a single year, in your own neighborhood, may not earn and save enough to this nation to pay his salary for fifty years?

But I am told by some honorable members of our committee, for whom I entertain a high regard, that the plan is unconstitutional. What! Is it to be said that America is the largest landholder in the world, and yet the poorest farmer? and that there is no remedy, no cure; for she has engrafted into her own organic law seeds, the fruit of which will produce her own decay and destruction? No, it is a mistake: it cannot be.

The length of my remarks forbid dwelling long upon this.

I have already said, by this plan we propose nothing new, only an improvement upon our adopted policy. We have the same power to do this that we have to establish the Navy, War, and other departments and bureaus, to transact our business; the same power, as to employ hands constantly to improve and ornament the public grounds at Washington. The science we propose to accumulate and diffuse, by this agency, is as directly applicable to the Government and its prosperity and welfare as it is to individuals and their welfare. Your coast and geological surveys, and a vast variety of others, are of the same character and family, except that those are more local in their effects, and this more general, and therefore less objectionable. To apply this construction to the great agricultural interest of the country, when it is not extended to any other interest besides, would be strange indeed. But the Constitution provides that Congress may do whatever is necessary for the general welfare of the United States. This question resolves itself into one of fact, and not of law. Suppose it became necessary to cut a ditch, as an outlet to a million acres of swamp land, belonging to the Government, now worth nothing, but by it worth five dollars an acre, could it not be done? We have power to make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory and other property of the United States. This bureau relates directly to the elements of our soil and its improvement, as does the ditch, or the ornamental trees and shrubs of your public grounds.

Art. XI.—RAILROAD INTELLIGENCE.

It appears by the late annual report of the Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Wilmington Railroad Company, that the whole number of through first-class passengers, including through tickets to and from other roads, and passengers between Philadelphia and Baltimore, on the railroad in 1852, was 128,428½, paying \$374,512 48; of second class, 8,409, paying \$16,122 87. Total from through passengers in 1852, \$390,635 34. The whole number of first class in 1853, was 177,348, paying \$513,219 80; of second class, 7,736½, paying \$15,217. Total from through passengers in 1853, \$528,436

80, showing a gain of \$137,801 46 in the through travel, including that between Philadelphia and Baltimore, by railroad, as compared with the year before.

The whole number of way passengers, by the railroad line, in 1852, was 251,918 $\frac{1}{2}$, paying \$132,129 48. In 1853, the number was 331,578 $\frac{1}{2}$, paying \$168,181 20, showing a gain in receipts from way travel of \$36,051 72, and a gain in numbers of 79,660 passengers.

In regard to the depreciation of iron upon railroad tracks, we have the following from the last report of the Western Railroad of Massachusetts:—

"The road from Springfield to Albany, 102 miles, is of a single track. This part of the road was opened through to Albany in 1842, and since 1851 about 36 miles have been relaid with new iron, while it is expected that about 20 miles will require to be relaid each year for the next three years. At the end of fourteen years, therefore, from the opening of the road it will have been relaid throughout with new iron. The business over the road is heavy. We are not able to state precisely the business done over *this part* of the line, but the whole line from Worcester to Albany, 156 miles, and which now has 44 miles of second track, has borne the wear of 8,135,778 miles of running by locomotives, from the first of January, 1842, to November 30, 1853. The number of passengers carried in that time were 4,495,395, of which 362,193 were through passengers between Albany and Worcester. A large part of the way travel was received from the New-York City line of roads, the "way" travel having increased over 50 per cent. since 1849, the year of the opening of the New-York City line, while the "through" travel has increased only 13 per cent. in the same time. This "way" travel, received from New-York, enters the Western road at Springfield, and passes over the 54 miles between that point and Worcester. A movement of freight has been made over the Western road, from January 1, 1846, to November 30, 1853, equal to 1,244,532 tons over the whole length of the road, or equal to 194,137,108 tons moved one mile."

The following is condensed from the last report of the Charleston and Hamburg, South Carolina, Railroad:—

Passage, freight, mails, etc.....	\$1,215,279 21
And the expenses of the management, ordinary and extraordinary (the ordinary equal to 43 per cent.).....	555,536 88
Leaving a balance of.....	663,742 33
Out of which have been provided interest on foreign and domestic debt, and for claims for damages, etc.....	199,773 72
And the remainder.....	463,968 61
Has afforded two dividends of 4 per cent. each, amounting to.....	311,376 00
And transferred a balance of.....	\$152,592 61
To the credit of surplus income for the year.	

The Board of Public Works of Virginia have issued their annual report, which we find condensed in the *Railroad Journal*. It notices the progress and condition of the Blue Ridge Railroad, which is to form, when completed, a most important connection of the system of the State. The road is 17 miles long, has four tunnels, respectively 538, 830, 100, and 4,248 feet in length. All of these have proved difficult of construction. Ten miles of the Eastern end of the road are completed, and in the present month three miles on the Western end are to be opened. The short tunnels are

expected to be completed within the present year, and in two, or at the most two and a half years, the main tunnel will be completed also. In the mean time the Virginia Central Company will operate their road over the temporary track lately planned and executed by the Engineer, Chas. Ellet, Jr., a description of which was lately published in the *Journal*.

The James River and Kanawha Canal is in progress from Buchanan to within thirty miles of Covington, in Alleghany County, at which latter point it has been decided it shall have its Western terminus. The stockholders of this work have conferred on the propriety of its sale to the State, or the conversion of its debt into stock upon terms subject to mutual agreement by the parties.

The report alludes in proper terms to the objects to be gained by extending the great East and West lines of the State to the four important points on the Ohio River, Wheeling, Parkersburg, Point Pleasant, and the mouth of the Big Sandy, at all of which they will be met by great lines in Ohio or Kentucky.

Other lines of road than those in which the State is a stockholder are alluded to, and represented as in a flourishing condition.

The report shows the entire length of railroads within the State, as 2,102, of which 1,049 are completed, (including 240 miles of the Baltimore and Ohio road,) and 873 miles are in progress. The authorized capital of all the roads, other than the Baltimore and Ohio, is \$27,096,100, of which the State holds on her own account \$6,102,497 17.

The Board has nearly effected negotiations in London for a large amount of State securities issued in aid of the public works.

From the report of Capt. Childs, of the Nashville and Cincinnati Railroad Company, it appears that there will be 2,950 miles of railroad converging to Nashville, and 3,850 miles to Lexington. The route of the Cincinnati road will be northeast and southwest, the direction of the Cumberland mountains. The receipts of the road are estimated at \$1,081,250 per annum, the expenses \$402,960, and the net income \$678,290, or ten per cent. on six millions of dollars.

Several routes have been surveyed, in all of which Gallatin, in Sumner County, Tenn., and Glasgow, in Barron County, Ky., are intermediate points.

The most favorable route appears to be via Gallatin, the Hermitage, Scottsville, Glasgow, and Perryville to Danville.

The Governor of South Carolina recommends a further subscription, by the State, of \$750,000 to the Blue Ridge Railroad, which proposes to connect Charleston with Louisville and Cincinnati. The route of the road will be through Edgefield, Abbeville, Anderson, Clayton, Rabun Gap, and Knoxville, Tenn. The Governor says:—

“By the act of incorporation of the Blue Ridge Railroad Company, passed by the last General Assembly, the guarantee of the State upon the bonds of the Company, to the extent of \$1,250,000, was secured upon the following conditions:—First, that \$500,000 should be previously subscribed to the capital stock of the said Blue Ridge Railroad Company in South Carolina, by responsible persons, companies, or corporations. Secondly, that such subscriptions should be made, or aid furnished to the railroad companies in North Carolina and Tennessee, designed to connect with that portion of the road lying in this State, as would give reasonable assurances of the construction of the said North Carolina and Tennessee roads. These conditions have been complied with.

“At rates agreed upon with contractors, the entire cost of the road, from Anderson to Knoxville, in Tennessee, together with necessary appurtenances, including interest accruing upon the bonds of the company until the

completion of the road, will amount to the sum of about \$7,500,000. To meet this outlay, the company estimate their resources at \$6,700,000.

It will thus be seen that the means of the company will fall short of the estimated cost of the work about \$800,000.

I have been enabled to ascertain that, by the terms of contract between Messrs. Bangs & Co., the work was to be commenced on the first of this month—and that a large portion of the surveys are completed, and found to present fewer obstacles than was at first supposed. A location has been made for tunnelling the Blue Ridge, and work allotted to contractors,—that their preliminary arrangements are in a state of forwardness,—that the districts through which the road will pass in this State will abundantly supply all the necessary labor,—that the citizens, both in this State and beyond it, have, with extraordinary unanimity, ceded the right of way without compensation—and that every circumstance tends favorable to an early and thorough completion of this enterprise.

Art. XII.—THE PRODUCTION OF COTTON.

The following is from the pen of JOHN G. HENRY, of Mobile, Ala. :—

The American crop has contended against many disadvantages ; but as the system of planting cotton, cultivating it, and preparing it for market has been gradually improving, what has heretofore proved so disastrous, is somewhat remedied. With a long drouth in the spring, a good deal of wet in August and September, and a killing frost on the night of the 24th of October, sixteen days earlier than that of 1852, and fourteen days earlier than the year 1851, it will be cut off smartly, but I imagine not to the low figure which in former times it would have been brought to, for the reasons above stated. The crops of the past five years were, for—

1852-'3.	1851-'2.	1850-'1.	1840-'50.	1848-'9.
3,262,000	3,015,000	2,335,000	2,007,000	2,729,000—13,458,200

averaging 2,602,000 bales. Hence, it appears an average crop is 2,692,000 bales. This crop I estimate at 2,800,000 bales, allowing for all sorts, and it is proper to remark that a good deal of it will be ordinary, from the unusual quantity of rain which fell in the fall; and as planters have determined to strive more for quantity than quality, a style of cotton may be looked for below former standards; and as it can be cleaned by machinery so much easier than by the labor of the growers, it is, perhaps, as well.

The imports into Great Britain of American cotton fall short in 1851, 252,000 bales from that of 1852. The imports from Egypt fall about 100,000 bales short, and the East India imports exceed, for the same year, 272,000 bales.

The excessive imports in Europe from Egypt in 1852, arose from accumulated stocks having been sent forward, and the excessive imports this year from India are ascribed to the revolution going on in China, thereby attracting it to Europe. The falling off from our country is ascribable to our increased consumption, partly, and because much more of the crop of 1852 than usual was hurried to Great Britain, and arrived there previous to their 1st January account of stocks, &c. The supply from Egypt and India in this year, will not be greater than usual, while the falling off from this country, allowing for our increasing consumption and moderate crop, will not be less than 500,000 bales;—a falling off altogether of 700,000.

The subject of the supply of cotton is one of intense anxiety to English manufacturers; they are fully aware of the uncertainty of the crops in this

country, and so very lucrative is its manufacture, so enormous has the consumption become, and so rapid is its increase, that, with any sort of a combination on the part of planters, prices could be greatly enhanced. The importance of the supply from this country demands the most careful attention, and let us coolly examine its prospects. We find that such is the demand for labor in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, for Railroad, Mining, Naval Store and other purposes, that negro fellows are hiring for a price that is equivalent to 10 per cent. interest on a value of \$2,000 each, and as such hire is also commanded in the more Southern cotton-growing States, the conclusion is irresistible that labor will be still further attracted from the culture of cotton to the many more profitable enterprises which court the pursuit of enlightened planters. The impulse to the Naval Store, Timber, and Lumber trade, is magical. The results of extensive cotton manufacturing in the South is beginning to develop themselves—and since they are so permanently profitable, while negroes are so very high, we may anticipate that capital will be more plenteously invested in them. I will not pretend that cotton planting with such crops as we have had for three years back, and such prices, is not remarkably profitable. Estimating negroes at old prices, this cannot be denied. But cotton crops are uncertain, and planting does not pay so well, as the investment in good stocks, in banks, railroads, insurance companies, manufactories, &c. Facts which are engaging the consideration of planters very generally.

In relation to the production of Cotton in this country, I will add in conclusion that parties may look to the crop of 1839-'40, and they find it was 2,178,000 bales. Then they may add up the succeeding eleven crops, which is 23,532,000 bales, and you find the average for the eleven years is only 2,139,000 bales. The average falling for the eleven years, actually below that of 1839-'40. Further, you may add the crops of the entire thirteen years together, inclusive of the last and largest crops ever known down to 1853, and your annual average is only 2,303,000 bales, less than an increase of six per cent. for thirteen years, or less than one half of one per cent. per annum—on the extent of the crop of 1839-'40.

Art. XIII.—BOOK NOTICES.

The Planter's Northern Bride. A novel, by Caroline Lee Hentz, author of *Linda, Rena, Eoline*, etc. Philadelphia: A. Hart. 1854. We are indebted to the gifted author of these volumes for a copy. They furnish a just and liberal view of Southern life, institutions, manners, and society, made up from a very large observation and experience. The author is a Northern lady who has long been a resident of the South. She speaks with eloquence and truthfulness, and vindicates the character of her adopted home from the vile aspersions of the ignorant and deluded of other quarters. Speaking of the relation of master and slave, she says, in her preface—

"We have been touched and gratified by the exhibition of affectionate kindness and care on one side, and loyal and devoted attachment on the other. We have been especially struck with the cheerfulness and contentment of the slaves, and their usually elastic and buoyant spirits. From the abundant opportunities we have had of judging, we give it as our honest belief, that the negroes of the South are the happiest *laboring class* on the face of the globe; even subtracting from their portion of enjoyment all that can truly be said of their trials and sufferings. The fugitives who fly to the Northern States are no proof against the truth of this statement. They have most of them been made disaffected by the influence of others—tempted by promises which are seldom fulfilled. Even in the garden of Eden, the seeds of discontent and rebellion were sown; surely we need not wonder that they sometimes take root in the beautiful groves of the South."

Works of John C. Calhoun, vol. I. We are glad that the Appletons of New-York have undertaken the publication of this great national work, of which four volumes have already appeared. Two others will follow and complete the series. The volume before us contains the Essay on Government and the Constitution of the United States. It should be in the hands of every American citizen. No other public man ever studied the Constitution with the same intenseness and devotion that Mr. Calhoun did; and however persons may differ with him in any respect, no one can question the extraordinary grasp of mind with which he analyzed and elaborated his subjects. History will vindicate his fame as the greatest political philosopher of his age, and perhaps of any age.

Memoir of the Life and Character of Edmund Burke, with specimens of his Poetry and Letters, and an estimate of his genius and talents, compared with those of his great cotemporaries—a new edition, enlarged and revised by James Prior; 2 vols. Boston: Ticknor, Reed, & Fields. 1854. From Frank Taylor, Washington. To an attentive reader of the political and literary history of Great Britain, no name will more frequently attract attention than that of Edmund Burke, whether we consider the large space he occupied in the public eye, the original genius he possessed, the diversified talents he displayed, or the great events with which the whole of his public life was connected.

Hallucinations; or, the Rational History of Apparitions, Visions, Dreams, Magnetism, Somnambulism, &c. By A. Brierré de Boismont. First American, from the second enlarged and improved Paris edition. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blackiston. 1854. The author treats the important and hitherto neglected subject of hallucination in various points of view, inasmuch as it bears important relations to philosophy, medicine, religion, history, morality, and jurisprudence. The apparitions of Holy Writ are handled with a reverence befitting a Christian; whilst much light is thrown on the probable origin of the hallucinations of so many celebrated personages, whose character and actions were so exalted as to place them apparently above humanity. We are indebted to Taylor & Maury for a copy of the work.

History of Liberty. Part II. The Early Christians. By Samuel Eliot. Vol. 2. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1853. From W. W. Morrison, Washington. We have already noticed Part I. of this work, and will have occasion to refer to it again.

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The Editor takes occasion to state that he still retains, and has ever held the exclusive editorial charge of the REVIEW, and that no one else whatever is interested in its proprietary. His location at Washington, in the service of the Government, has been but of a temporary character.

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